

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A Y, 1793.

A Narrative of the Campaign in India, which terminated the War with Tippoo Sultan, in 1792. With Maps and Plans illustrative of the Subject, and a View of Seringapatam. By Major Dirom, Deputy Adjutant General of his Majesty's Forces in India. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Faden. 1793.

THERE is not a more difficult task than to write at once for a profession and for the public; on the elegance of a polished style to engraft the harsh and unmanageable vocabulary of technical language; and while facts are detailed with a sufficient degree of minuteness to be particularly useful, still to enliven the narrative in such a manner, that to general readers it shall not prove disgusting.

To say that our author appears to have accomplished this difficult object is a very high commendation; and yet, from our own experience, we can safely pay him this compliment. Though evidently adapted to the instruction of military readers, the narrative never seemed to languish during our perusal of it. Instead of becoming tedious (as is generally the case) by the minuteness of detail, it is rather more interesting from that circumstance; and the military transactions are agreeably interrupted by remarks on the manners of the people, and occasional sketches of the country; and, as that part of India was previously but little known to Europeans, such remarks are the more agreeable; and we could even have wished that they more frequently occurred.

After a very brief statement of the leading facts in the campaign of 1791, major Dirom's Narrative may be said properly to commence with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, on the 6th of June. The arrangements for the ensuing campaign are next detailed, and appear, in fact, to have been very judicious. The reduction of the forts in the neighbourhood of Bangalore was the next principal object; the account of the taking of Nundydroog is particularly curious and interesting.

* Nundydroog, the capital of a large and valuable district, is built on the summit of a mountain about one thousand seven hundred
C. R. N. AR. (VIII.) May, 1793. B dred

dred feet in height, three-fourths of its circumference being absolutely inaccessible, and the only face on which it can be ascended protected by two excellent walls, and an outwork which covered the gateway, and afforded a formidable flank fire. The foundation for a third wall had been dug, but, in the state of many of the other forts, the suddenness of the war had not given the Sultan time to complete the plan. This fort, however, in point of strength, ranked after Savendroog, Chittledroog, and Kistnaghery, and stood a siege worthy of the garrison which Tippoo had placed in it for its defence.

‘ The first object was to cut and form a road to the top of a hill adjoining to the mountain, upon which a battery was erected, and guns brought up with infinite labour. This done, it was expected the place might be immediately breached, and carried by assault; but unfortunately the hill, which seemed so favourably situated to bring the siege to a speedy termination, was found to be too distant, and the battery was not effectual in even taking off the defences of the fort.

‘ There was no alternative, but to abandon the attack, or attempt to work up the face of this steep and rugged mountain, to within breaching distance of the fort. This arduous undertaking was adopted, rather than leave a post of such consequence in the possession of the enemy, and encourage them by an instance of our troops being foiled in the attack of a fortified place, which had not yet happened during the war.

‘ The exertions required to form a gun-road, and erect batteries on the face of this mountain, surpassed whatever had been known in any former siege in India; and such was the steepness of the ascent, that the battering guns could not have been drawn up without the assistance of elephants; whose strength, sagacity, and patient docility, can only be known to those who have seen them employed in the Indian armies.

‘ During a fortnight that the troops were employed in this last arduous work, a continual fire was kept up on them from the fort. The cannon shot, directed from so great a height, seldom took effect; but they were severely annoyed by ginjall, or wall-pieces, which are in general use among the native powers in the defence of forts, and throw a bullet of considerable size, with much accuracy, to a great distance.

The batteries formed, two breaches were made; one on the re-entering angle of the outwork, the other in the curtain of the outer wall; but the inner wall, at the distance of eighty yards, could not be touched by our shot.

‘ On the place being breached, major Gowdie summoned the bukshy to surrender; who refusing in firm but polite terms, the major, with great humanity, made him an offer to send out the women,

women, and those persons who did not carry arms, that they might not suffer in the assault. Of this offer the killedar said he would avail himself, but afterwards unaccountably neglected.

‘ The breaches being reported practicable, lord Cornwallis, on the 17th of October, detached the flank companies of the 36th and 71st regiments to lead the assault; and general Meadows having, with his usual zeal, made offer of his services, went to command the detachment that was engaged in this important enterprise.

‘ On the 18th of October lord Cornwallis, with a view to intimidate the garrison, encamped with the army within four miles of Nundydroog; and having examined the breaches, directed, in order to render them more practicable, and to take off some adjoining defences, that the firing should be continued from the batteries till night, when the rising of the moon should be the signal for the assault.

‘ It was determined to storm the breaches, and attempt to carry the inner wall by escalade; but if the attempt should not meet with that success which the boldness of the measure deserved, it was at least thought practicable to make a lodgment behind a cavalier between the walls, and proceed from thence in the regular attack of the inner wall.

‘ The trench dug for the foundation of the third wall, within a hundred yards of that which was breached, having been formed into an advanced parallel, the flank companies had been lodged in it before day-break on the morning of the 18th, that they might be in readiness to advance early in the evening; but it was afterwards judged more expedient to defer the assault till towards midnight, when the garrison would be probably less prepared, and the assailants have the advantage of a clearer moonlight.

‘ Captain Robertson, the senior officer of the flank companies, was to lead the grenadiers of the 36th and 71st regiments to the breach in the curtain. Captain Burne, of the 36th; the next senior officer, declining to quit his grenadier company, at the head of which he had distinguished himself during the war, the light companies were to be led by captain Hart to the breach in the outwork. The flank companies of the 4th European regiment, commanded by captain Doveton, were to follow with ladders, for escalading the inner wall.

‘ The disposition above stated, and every preparation, having been made for the assault, the time had almost approached, when some person unthinkingly mentioned, in the hearing of the troops, that a mine was reported to be near the breach. General Meadows, with that promptitude which marks his character, replied, “If there be a mine, it must be a mine of gold.” The orders being given, the troops moved out from the right and left of the parallel, and rushed forward to the assault.

'The vigilance of the enemy soon discovered the assailants.—The fort was instantly illuminated with blue lights, and a heavy fire of cannon, musquetry, and rockets, opened from the works. The fire from the garrison was luckily ill-directed, but the large stones which were thrown down from the hill, acquiring great velocity as they bounded from the rock in their descent, were extremely formidable, and attended with more certain effect. The storming party, however, soon mounted both the breaches, and pursued the enemy so closely, as to prevent their effectually barricading the gate of the inner wall. This was forced open with some difficulty, and the troops entered the body of the place.

'The carnage which must have ensued in clearing the fort of the enemy, was prevented partly by a number of the garrison escaping by ropes and ladders over a low part of the wall; but chiefly by the exertions of captain Robertson; who, seeing the place was carried, turned all his attention to preserving order, and preventing the unnecessary effusion of blood. To his humanity the bukshy and killedar owed their lives; and of the garrison there were only about forty men killed and wounded..

'The flank companies, which formed the storming party, had two men killed, and twenty-eight wounded; the latter chiefly from bruises by the stones thrown from the rock. The loss during the siege was, in all, forty Europeans, and eighty Sepoys and pioneers killed and wounded. Captain Read, who had exerted himself with great success, was severely but not dangerously wounded, in carrying on the approach up the face of the hill. Brigade major Cranston, and lieutenant Hill of the Bengal artillery, were also slightly wounded.

Nundydroog, defended by seventeen pieces of cannon, chiefly iron guns, of a large calibre, improved by its late works, and well garrisoned, was thus taken by regular attack in the course of three weeks, although of such strength that it was not yielded to Hyder by the Mahrattas till after a tedious blockade of three years!

The following extract contains a few particulars relative to the Nizam.

'There was still one more junction expected; the army of the Soubah or Nizam from Gurramcondah. Having left a stronger force in possession of the lower fort, and for the blockade of the place, the prince advanced again to join lord Cornwallis, and detained his lordship some days longer than would have been necessary in the neighbourhood of Outredroog.

'On the 25th of January, lord Cornwallis having received accounts of the approach of that army, went to meet his highness the prince, by appointment, at Magré, about six miles in the rear

of his lordship's camp, accompanied by general Medows, and the officers of their suite, and escorted by colonel Floyd, with part of the 19th dragoons, and the body guards. Guns were prepared to fire a salute on the right of the line, and the flank companies of the first brigade, with the bands of music of the 36th and 52d regiments, were ordered to the place where the tents were to be pitched, in order to receive the prince with every possible mark of distinction. His lordship, after waiting several hours at Magré, exposed to the sun, rode on some miles farther, to meet the prince. Repeated messages were brought that he was approaching, and several questions asked as to the form of his reception. At length, after a most tiresome day, the prince, the minister, and their principal attendants, on their elephants, arrived, accompanied by a large body of his horse. Hurry Punt, who had gone to meet his highness, in order to add to his own consequence, undertook the ceremonies of the introduction, and had contributed not a little to the delay. The sun was set before these great men descended from their elephants; there was no time for paying the intended compliments to the prince, nor even for pitching a tent, which he had with him; so that, after some conversation standing on foot, it was necessary to conclude the conference. Lord Cornwallis had a long way to return to his camp in the dark, and the prince had to blame his own delay for the inconvenience of having to take up his ground of encampment after daylight.

‘ This young man appeared to be about twenty years of age, not very tall, but extremely corpulent. He had a heavy look; with the appearance, however, of good-nature, and good sense. The minister, about sixty years of age, who occasionally prompted or spoke for the prince, is a man of great and established talents. He had all the appearance of a shrewd and able courtier, possessing the firmness and talents that have not only raised him to his eminent situation from a family of inferior rank, but have enabled him to hold his post for a series of years amidst the cabals of the Soubah's court, which, though chiefly directed by the influence of the Mahratta states, has been open to the intrigues of every government in India.’

It cannot fail to be acceptable to many readers, to be informed of the station which was chosen by so able a general as Tippoo Sultan for the defence of his capital.

‘ On both sides of the river, opposite to the island of Seringapatam, a large space is enclosed by a bound hedge, which marks the limits of the capital, and is intended as a place of refuge to the people of the neighbouring country from the incursions of horse. On the south side of the river this inclosure was filled with inhabitants, but that on the north side was occupied only by Tippoo's army.

‘ The bound hedge on the north side of the river includes an oblong space of about three miles in length, and in breadth from half a mile to a mile, extending from nearly opposite to the west end of the island to where the Lockany river falls into the Cavery. Within this inclosure the most commanding ground is situated on the north side of the fort; and, besides the hedge, it is covered in front by a large canal, by rice fields, which it waters, and partly by the winding of the Lockany river. Six large redoubts, constructed on commanding ground, added to the strength of this position, one of which, on an eminence, at an ead-gah or mosque, within the north-west angle of the hedge, advanced beyond the line of the other redoubts, was a post of great strength, and covered the left of the encampment.

‘ The right of Tippoo's position was not only covered by the Lockany river, but beyond it by the great Carrighaut hill, which he had lately fortified more strongly, and, opposite to the lower part of the island, defends the ford.

‘ The eastern part of the island was fortified towards the river by various redoubts and batteries, connected by a strong intrenchment with a deep ditch, so that the fort and island formed a second line, which supported the defences of the first beyond the river; and when the posts there should be no longer tenable, promised a secure retreat, as from the outworks to the body of a place.

‘ Tippoo's front line, or fortified camp, was defended by heavy cannon in the redoubts, and by his field train and army stationed to the best advantage. In this line there were 100 pieces, and in the fort and island, which formed his second line, there were at least three times that number of cannon.

‘ The defence of the redoubts on the left of Tippoo's position was intrusted to Syed Hummeed and Syed Guffar, two of his best officers, supported by his corps of Europeans and Lally's brigade, commanded by monsieur Vigie. Sheik Anser, a sipadar or brigadier of established reputation, was on the great Carrighaut hill. The Sultan himself commanded the centre and right of his line within the bound hedge, and had his tent pitched near the Sultan's redoubt, so called from being under his own immediate orders. The officer is not known who commanded the troops in the island; but the garrison in the fort was under the orders of Syed Saib. The Sultan's army certainly amounted to above five thousand cavalry, and between forty and fifty thousand infantry.

‘ Ever since the junction of the Mahratta armies, Tippoo, seeing he could not continue to keep the field, had employed his chief attention, and the exertions of the main body of his army, in fortifying this camp, and in improving his defences in the fort and island. The country had already been laid waste during the

former campaign, and the Sultan seemed confidently to rest his hopes on the strength of his works and army for protracting the siege, till the want of supplies, or the approach of the monsoon, should again oblige his enemies to withdraw from his capital.'

The account of the attack by night, and the dislodgement of Tippoo from this fortified camp, is interesting, but is too long for insertion; but a part of the operations, viz. those of the division under general Medows, will serve to give some idea of the rest; and, as this circumstance has afforded much matter for conversation, we are the more desirous of inserting it.

'That part of the column which, under the immediate orders of the general, was to penetrate into the enemy's camp, consisted of the 36th and 76th regiments, commanded by captains Wight, and Shawe, and the 13th battalion of Sepoys, commanded by capt. Macleod, in the order detailed for the march of the column.

'The general's station, as fixed by the orders of the commander in chief, was in the centre of the column. He was attended by colonel Harris, major Hart, captains Macauley and Bordes, his aids de camp, and by lieutenant Grant, with his body guard. Majors Dirom and Close, the officers of the general staff with this division, accompanied lieutenant-colonel Nesbitt at the head of the column.

Colonel Nesbitt, meeting with no opposition, nor finding any camp on penetrating the bound hedge, and seeing the ead gah or mosque, to his right, thought it his duty to advance without hesitation against this work, as being within the enemy's lines, and one of the posts which defended the left of their position. He wheeled his division to the right, and marching first along the hedge, and afterwards to his left, along the bank of the canal, crossed it, and ascended the hill towards the redoubt.

'The enemy, forewarned of their danger, by the previous commencement of the other attacks, were here prepared for their defence.

'A few cannon had been fired from the redoubt, and a few musquet shot from the advanced centinels, as our pioneers cut down the hedge; but whether it was that the enemy reserved their fire till they should be able to give it with full effect, or that their attention was successfully drawn off by the march of the 22d battalion to their front, the leading division met with no opposition till they had crossed the canal and approached near to the redoubt, when a heavy fire of grape and musquetry was directed against the column.

'The gleam of this discharge gave a momentary view of the enemy and their post. The redoubt and covert-way were full of men, and troops were seen drawn up to the right and left, but chiefly to the left of the redoubt.

‘ Lieutenant-colonel Nesbitt, assisted by major Close, formed the battalion company of the 36th regiment which led the column, and some farther part of the battalion, as it advanced to oppose the enemy on the left, while the flank companies of the 36th and 76th regiments rushed forward to the redoubt,

‘ The enemy who had continued their fire, now received ours. The assailants drove them from the covert-way, but being severely galled by the multitude that manned the inner works, repeated ineffectual efforts were made to pass the ditch. Several of the ladders were missing, and without them, in the face of such resistance, it seemed impossible to get into the redoubt,

‘ While the troops that had extended to the right and left of the mosque, were thus unsuccessful in the assault, a path-way was fortunately discovered, which was left across the ditch, and led from the end of the mosque into the redoubt. Officers and men crowded to it from both sides, where they had been stopped by the ditch. A slight gateway, which closed the fortie or entrance, was soon forced; and, after a severe conflict, the assailants got possession of a large traverse between the gateway and the body of the redoubt.

‘ The enemy, now driven to the inner circle of the redoubt, faced towards the traverse, and turned one of the guns against the gorge. Their retreat was cut off, and they seemed determined to die or defend their post. Ranged along the circle of the rampart, they directed a heavy fire against the gorge and traverse, crowded by our people, who continued to press in from without, while an irregular fire was returned from a smaller front on our side.

‘ Captain Gage, with brigade-major Nightingall and ensign M^cColl, had got a party of grenadiers of the 76th regiment upon a banquette to the right of the gorge, from which they fired into the redoubt, and a few men had also got upon a similar banquette behind the magazine to the left of the gorge: these parties, in some measure, secured the traverse; but the enemy's fire being evidently superior, it became necessary to cease ours, and charge them with our bayonets. The firing was stopt with some difficulty; the men were formed and brought forward by their officers, and, headed by major Dirom and captain Wight, were led in at the gorge of the redoubt. The enemy, who had seen this intention, reserved their fire till the assailants advanced, when a discharge of grape from the gun they had directed against the gorge, seconded by their musquetry, brought down nearly the whole party, and repulsed the charge. Captain Gage, recommencing his fire from the banquette within, prevented the enemy from taking advantage of the confusion that followed this check, while the men below in the traverse were rallied and exhorted to renew the attack. They came forward with great spirit, and were
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again led in by major Dirom and captain Wight. Captain Gage and his party mounted the parapet to the right; captain Burne, with part of his remaining grenadiers, at the same time mounted the works to the left of the gorge; and major Close, who had come into the redoubt, also zealously assisted at this critical period of the attack.

' The enemy fired their musquetry, but not having been able to reload the gun which raked the gorge, and dismayed at this second more powerful effort, broke as the assailants closed with them; and such as escaped immediate death by leaping from the embrasures into the ditch, were fired upon, or taken by the main body of the column, which was formed by general Medows to support the attack and cut off the enemy's retreat.

' While the attack was carried on in the redoubt, and before the rest of the column had come up, lieutenant-colonel Nesbitt, after routing the body in his front, saw a corps advancing with drums beating and colours flying. The officer who led, on being challenged in Moors, answered (*Agari que logue*) "We belong to the advance,"—the title of Lally's brigade, supposing the people he saw to be their own Europeans, whose uniform also is red; but soon discovering his mistake, the commandant called out (*Feringy Banchoot! — Chelow*) "They are the rascally English!—Make off;—in which he set his corps a ready example. Lieutenant John Campbell of the 36th grenadiers, who had come out of the redoubt wounded, was the person who challenged this corps; and, on seeing it break, rushed forward and seized the standards. Colonel Nesbitt also, finding that this body of the enemy had not come to lay down their arms, nor had been beating a chamade, as at first supposed, gave orders to fire upon them, and dispersed the whole.

' This event took place during the heat of the contest within the redoubt; and had this corps, which, it seems, was late in following up the rest of the brigade from Somarpett, advanced with less noise, or had it not been opposed by colonel Nesbitt's party before it reached the redoubt, it is hard to say what turn it might have given to the assault.

' This work, which defended the left of the enemy's position, was supplied with eight pieces of cannon, and flanked by three, which were taken on the glacis, said to be the field pieces of Lally's brigade. The commandant, Syed Hummeed, a Moor-man of high rank, and near four hundred of his men, fell in its defence.

' The loss on our side was also considerable; eleven officers and about eighty men, killed and wounded. The officers killed were lieutenant Stuart of the Bengal engineers, lieutenant Roperison of the 73d, doing duty with the 36th regiment, ensign
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Smith of the 36th, and lieutenant Jones of the 76th regiment. The wounded were lieutenants Brownrigg, Robert Campbell, and John Campbell, of the 36th regiment; captain Markham, lieutenants Robertson, Philpot, and Shaw, of the 76th regiment.'

'General Medows, having ordered four companies of the 36th regiment, under captain Austin, who had commanded the leading company of the column, and captain Oram's battalion, to be left for the defence of this post, directed that the troops should be formed again in their original order, and wheeled to the left, that he might move down as quickly as possible, to co-operate with lord Cornwallis. The column being again in motion, the general directed one of his suite to go at the head of it, and gave him two troopers of his guard, that he might take the first opportunity of pushing on to acquaint his lordship with what had been done, and to inform him that the column was coming down to his support.

'A deserter, who had given himself up at the redoubt, undertook to be the guide into the enemy's camp and to the island. On recrossing the canal, at a bridge a little higher up, he mentioned that some houses seen on fire to the right, were monsieur Vigie's quarters at Somarpett, by which he judged that post was abandoned; at all events, it did not appear to be in the proposed line of attack. The column soon after crossed a large ravine, and then ascended an eminence, on which the deserter said there was a redoubt, commanded by Syed Guffar, and a larger one to the right not quite finished, between it and the fort. The general sent orders to halt and close up after crossing the ravine, and came himself to the front.

'At this time the firing every where had ceased, except a few cannon shot from the redoubt, which was some hundred yards in front of the column; it was consequently supposed that the two other columns were victorious or repulsed. Being now in possession of the enemy's principal redoubt in that quarter, which must probably oblige them to evacuate the other posts on the left of their position; and the loss sustained having been very considerable, it became an object of deliberation, whether it might be more advisable to storm these redoubts also, and get directly to the island; or, by leaving them to the right, avoid the farther delay which might be occasioned by this attack. The latter measure was adopted. The general resolved to get into the track by which lord Cornwallis had marched, and to advance and support his lordship in that direction. The column recrossed the hedge and canal; but finding it necessary, from the rice swamps, to make a larger circuit than was intended, it unfortunately missed the track of the center column; and the general reached the Carighaut or Pagoda

Pagoda hill without receiving any intelligence of lord Cornwallis. Two Sepoys were met, who gave a confused account of our troops having been repulsed from the island. Still there was no firing. The column was halted, and an officer dispatched with a few troopers to endeavour to gain intelligence. But on his return, without obtaining any information of the centre column, a heavy firing commenced in that part of the camp that lay between the fort and the Carighaut hill, upon which general Medows gave orders to countermarch his column, and was advancing to support the troops that appeared to be engaged, when the day broke; and he found it was unnecessary to proceed, as will appear in the account of the operations of the centre division.'

The reception of the sons of Tippoo as hostages in the camp of lord Cornwallis cannot fail to afford some entertainment.

' On the 26th about noon, the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crouded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart. The Sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed, was turned out to receive them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, and pitched near the mosque redoubt, where they were met by sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

' The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howder, and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harrarras, and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags suspended from rockets, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred Sepoys, and a party of horse, brought up the rear. In this order they approached our head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal Sepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

' Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gulliam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: " These children were this morning

ing the sons of the Sultan my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father."

' Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shewn to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

' The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns, and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct. The eldest boy, rather dark in his colour, with thick lips, a small flat-tish nose, and a long thoughtful countenance, was less admired than the youngest, who is remarkably fair, with regular features, a small round face, large full eyes, and a more animated appearance. Placed too, on the right hand of lord Cornwallis, he was said to be the favourite son, and the Sultan's intended heir. His mother (a sister of Burham-ud-Deen's who was killed at Sattimungulum), a beautiful, delicate woman, had died of fright and apprehension, a few days after the attack of the lines. This melancholy event made the situation of the youngest boy doubly interesting, and, with the other circumstances, occasioned his attracting by much the most notice. After some conversation, his lordship presented a handsome gold watch to each of the princes, with which they seemed much pleased. Beetle-nut and otter of roses, according to the eastern custom, being then distributed, he led them back to their elephants, embraced them again, and they returned, escorted by their suite and the battalion, to their tents.'

' Next day, the 27th, lord Cornwallis, attended as yesterday, went to pay the princes a visit at their tents, pitched near the mosque redoubt, within the green canaut or wall, used by the Sultan in the field, of which we had so often traced the marks during the war.

' The canaut of canvas, scollopped at top, was painted of a beautiful sea-green colour, with rich ornamented borders, and formed an elegant inclosure for the tents. It was thrown open to the front, and within it the pikemen, Sepoys, &c. of the princes' guard formed a street to a tent, whence they came out and met
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lord Cornwallis. After embracing them, he led them, one in each hand, into the tent, where chairs were placed for his lordship, themselves, and his suite. Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and the Nizam's vakeels, also attended the conference.

• The eldest boy, now seated on his lordship's right hand, appeared less serious than yesterday; and when he spoke, was not only graceful in his manner, but had a most affable, animated appearance. The youngest, however, appeared to be the favourite with the vakeels; and, at the desire of Gullam Ally, repeated, or rather recited some verses in Arabic, which he had learned by heart from the Koran, and afterwards some verses in Persian, which he did with great ease and confidence, and shewed he had made great progress in his education.

• Each of the princes presented his lordship with a fine Persian sword, and in return he gave the eldest a fufee, and the youngest a pair of pistols, of very fine and curious workmanship. Some jewels, shawls, and rich presents were then offered to his lordship as matter of form; after which, beetle-nut and otter of roses being distributed, the princes conducted his lordship without the tent, when he embraced them and took his leave.

• The tent in which the princes received lord Cornwallis, was lined with fine chintz, and the floor covered with white cloth. The attendants sprinkled rose-water during the audience; and there was a degree of state, order, and magnificence, in every thing, much superior to what had been seen amongst our allies. The guard of Sepoys drawn up without, was clothed in uniform, and not only regularly and well armed, but, compared to the rabble of infantry in the service of the other native powers, appeared well disciplined and in high order.

• From what passed this day, and the lead taken by the eldest son, it seemed uncertain which of them might be intended for Tippoo's heir. Perhaps, and most probably, neither; for Hyder Saib, about twenty years of age, has always been said to be Tippoo's eldest son; had been educated accordingly, and had accompanied his father constantly during the war, till lately, when he was sent on a separate command, and distinguished himself very eminently in the relief of Gurramconda. The vakeels, however, asserted that he was not a legitimate son, nor in favour with Tippoo, from being of an unpromising disposition; but there is reason to suspect that they were directed to make this sacrifice of truth to policy, in order to prevent the demand of Hyder Saib as one of the hostages, which, to a prince at his time of life must have been extremely disagreeable; though the others, from their early age, would feel less in that situation, and would not suffer essentially by removal from their father's care.

• Hyder Saib is, from all accounts, a most promising youth; and should he be destined to succeed to the kingdom of Mysore,

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it may be hoped that the misfortunes which the inordinate ambition of his father has brought upon their family, will lead him to recur to the prudence of his grandfather; and that his reign, as well as the remainder of Tippoo's life, will be employed rather to preserve and improve what remains, than to attempt to recover the half which they have lost of the extensive dominions so lately acquired by the wisdom and valour of old Hyder.'

The style of major Dirom is simple, chaste, and unaffected. There is nothing in it to offend true taste, and yet every thing that such a Narrative as the present demands. It would have made the work more complete, had the author prefixed a full account of the operations of the preceding campaign.

The Life of Baron Frederic Trenck. Volume the Fourth, and most Important. Translated from the German. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Robinsons. 1793.

FEW of our readers, we presume, are unacquainted with the romantic adventures of baron Trenck: and who, that has perused his narrative of them, can fail to admire that unconquerable spirit which enabled him to effect what to minds less vigorous would have appeared impossible? Who, but must have regretted such great, such indefatigable exertions, wasted in attempts to emancipate an individual from the gripe of arbitrary power? How much good might have been produced by the same efforts applied to other purposes! But perhaps liberty is, as Britons have of old been accustomed to think, inestimable; and its stimulus far exceeds any other that can be applied to the human mind. For our parts at least, we recollect no instances of arduous enterprize, equal to those which have been prompted by the love of freedom. Even the most distant prospect, the remotest hope of it, has often supported the lamp of life for years in the deep and solitary gloom of a dungeon, where every debilitating cause appears combined to extinguish the vital spark. Yet we trust the example of a Trenck will not be thrown away, as men may learn from it how much may be accomplished by resolution and perseverance.

These reflections arose spontaneously to our minds on taking up the present volume, which we did with no small pleasure, at finding that its author still enjoys life and liberty.

'Three years ago, says the baron, I concluded the third volume of my history with my departure from Berlin for Vienna: and little thought I then, that a fourth would follow, as the remainder of my wintry days I had destined to domestic peace. But fate has not inserted my name in the page of rest: it has enrolled me in the
number

number of knights errant, doomed incessantly to wander throughout the earth, without ever tasting the cup of fortune. When age has now silvered my locks, I am exposed to events in this tumultuous world, in which I could take a willing part, were I in the ardour of youth, or the vigour of manhood; and my reason is obliged to exert all its powers, to restrain me from resolves, to which my restless activity would gladly impel me, whilst I have a fair opportunity to show the gods of the earth, what an honest man grossly injured, what an ill-treated victim of juridical courts, what one whom unfeelingness and persevering barbarity have rendered an avowed enemy to all arbitrary power, is capable of undertaking, is capable of carrying into execution.'

' By the grave of Frederic, at Potsdam, I stood crowned with laurels, and the inexorable autocrate lay at my feet in the dust. I have beheld the period when an oppressed people dared to shake off the yoke with heroic bravery, and make their tyrants tremble: I might have partaken in the glorious deed; but, I refrained.

' Before the door of my prison in Magdeburg I have seen grass growing; and the justice of William converted it into a temple to my honour.

' In Paris I beheld the Bastille, the tomb of virtue and freedom, taken and destroyed; and the bloody head of its once omnipotent governor Delaunay borne about on the point of a spit.

' Members of the courts of justice of Vienna have I seen with the besom of the house of correction in their hands, counting their beads to obtain absolution for the villainies they practised against me.

' I saw the most unlimited monarch in Europe deserted by all his courtiers, supplicating the national cockade in the townhouse of Paris. I saw princes pale with fear, and the favourites of a court, trembling, take flight, whilst firm and true patriots spurned despotic power. I saw the great partisan of unlimited authority, the emperor Joseph, depart this life as mean as possible, after having disgracefully repealed all the commands he had issued to his Hungarian subjects.

' What delight for an inquiring mind, that perceives things as they are, and could assist in spreading the flame it had contributed to illumine, which had wonderfully purified the air from the fogs of slavery and the mists of prejudice! Golden times! to your heroes will posterity erect altars of gratitude: and happy do I deem myself in seeing this epoch arrived, and being able from just data to predict its successful termination; if they, who have now the felicity of the people in their hands, do but remain honest, disinterested men.'

An ardent, impetuous mind, like that of Trenck, might, indeed,

deed, plan a life of rest and quiet, but the remaining inactive would be totally inconsistent with it. To follow our author through all his vicissitudes, would exceed our limits; and his accounts of the triumphant reception he met with in different places, his various lawsuits, and many occurrences of private concern, will please most, as related by himself. We must not, however, omit to notice the services he rendered Leopold in Hungary, which was on the point of shaking off the dominion of the house of Austria; and the plan he formed for establishing the peace of Germany, by an alliance between Austria and Prussia, which, it appears, nothing prevented from taking place but the ambitious vanity of Joseph. Of this prince he gives no flattering character. How just it is, we presume not to decide: but as he has drawn it, we shall present the most striking parts of it to our readers.

• Never was the most stupid prince more contemned, less valued, less beloved, or less obeyed, than Joseph. Wise we must certainly allow him to have been in his way; but he was soon wearied of his undertakings, deterred, chagrined, and dissatisfied; whilst his ministers and counsellors followed the old rout, and no person of abilities assisted him, as he was resolved to know and conduct every thing by himself. So circumstanced, he was actually an enemy to mankind, and, had he lived longer, he would gradually have become the most unfeeling of tyrants.

• His daily intercourse was with people who knew still less than himself. Of the sciences that belong to the art of government he had never made himself master. Occasionally he endeavoured to emancipate himself from gross prejudices: but they soon subdued his uncultivated mind; and they whom he chose for his advisers speedily gained an ascendancy over his confused ideas, availed themselves of his weakness, and, being enemies to mankind, or ambitious of power, steered him by their own compass, and left him in the whirlpool of perplexity, striving in vain to reach the shore. The more resistance he found, the more he steeled his heart against noble and exalted sentiments. His chosen assistants must be despots, tyrants, men devoid of feeling. These flattered his natural propension to obduracy, fortified his heart against every soft emotion, alone capable of rendering princes happy by inclining them to do good, and tyrannised over the people in his name. His pride would not admit of contradiction. Flatterers and deceivers pressed round the throne, and obscured the truth. As all these termed his obstinacy firmness, and exalted his arbitrariness to the skies, as the sole means by which he would become the greatest of all princes, and obscure the glory of the great Frederic, in acquiring superior fame; he soon desired to appear infallible, and to impart this infallibility to all his officers, civil and military,
from

from the general to the corporal, and from the judge to the cryer of the court.'

' He possessed every mental gift requisite for a great prince : but his education was faulty ; and when he endeavoured to remedy its defects, he fell into bad hands. As his disposition was by nature prone to despotism, cruelty, and insensibility ; as he had to do with a nation totally depraved, and incapable of being amended otherwise than by force, and severe punishments ; as he found insurmountable obstacles to every innovation that tended to good ; as he was a sworn enemy to literature, of which he had no just idea ; he would actually have been the severest of tyrants, had his life been of longer duration.

' Here and there a glimmering light appeared, but he would not give himself the trouble to search after truth. The notions he imbibed in his childhood he was never able to surmount, because he wanted the will to fortify his understanding. He began, it is true, to see, to enquire, to remark the cunning of the priesthood, and to reform—but, alas ! steadfastness was wanting ; scruples laid hold of his mind—the emissaries of Rome knew how to turn his weakness to their advantage ; sorrow and repentance soon took their turn ; and the most important projects for the weal of mankind were shaken to their foundations. He had the best inclinations to break the yoke of infantile prejudices—was ashamed at his inability to imitate the great Frederic, whom he had taken as a pattern—and knelt in secret at the confessional, before his indecisiveness would permit him, to avow himself openly a slave of the church.'

' Not for the pleasure of the chase, but from the thirst of murder, he delighted in hunting, where, well guarded, he would plunge his pike again and again into the dying animals, and listen to their groans as they lay defenceless growling out their pangs. Bear-fights he highly enjoyed ; particularly when a horse, delivered to wild bears raging with hunger, was devoured alive, neighing, snorting, and rolling his eyes in agony. He permitted the savage custom of baiting beasts at Vienna, to accustom the abject inhabitants to such fights, till an opportunity should offer to make them undergo the same fate. These were the best of all theatres and schools for hangmen, gaolers, commandants, and drill-sergeants ; though they did little honour to the national character, whilst at them tender hearted females shouted applause, when a bear had seized a swine and torn out his bowels, and the mingled uproar of drums, trumpets, and the cries of the animals tickled their ears ; or a dog, his belly ripped up by the tusks of a wild boar, lay sprawling in the ring, to gratify their eyes. Nay the more barbarity the keepers displayed, in dragging the poor beasts

to the fight from their dens with iron crooks, the more was the reputation of the bear-gardens enhanced.

‘ Joseph loved only hunting at force, when the stag, panting to escape, lolled out the tongue with fatigue, and received from the hand of majesty the death blow that put an end to his torment. Unhappy the land, of whose sovereign war and savage hunting are the occupations ! From doing good Joseph derived no satisfaction ; the business of government was soon a burden to him ; and, as he never read a book, was a stranger to the sciences, and avoided the society of all men who were wiser than himself, he soon found time hang heavy on his hands, and sought war, and long journeys, to pass it away. In war, however, he was timid, intrenched himself, and remained inactive before far inferior forces ; and was the sole occasion that a hundred and fifty thousand soldiers, who might have attacked and defeated the enemy with ease, perished in hospitals for want of proper care. Thus he was a feeble general, a weak lawgiver, a severe judge, and consequently a prince unfortunate in all his undertakings.’

‘ Yet had he some good qualities. He was laborious, but employed himself too much in trifles. He appeared humane and open-hearted, and in society was a pleasant companion ; yet in his heart he made a jest of every man without exception. He was always sober, temperate in his meals, and drank no wine ; but in the gratification of his lusts he was brutishly immoderate. In little things mean and avaricious, he was prodigal in great ones, when they indulged favourite passions, his pride, his obstinacy, or his ambition.’

Of Leopold, he speaks in far different terms. He was a good prince, a greater monarch than many who have borne the appellation of great ; but the errors of his predecessor left him so much to do, that he had scarcely time to retrieve them before he was cut off by death.

For our author’s account of the origin of Joseph’s celebrated contest, concerning the navigation of the Scheldt, we fear we have not room : but we shall give his description of the castle of Konigstein, with which we presume our readers will be gratified.

‘ This vast rock is not a fortress, that an enemy must subdue before he can conquer Saxony. It contains but a small garrison, incapable of making a sally ; and serves only to secure the records of the country, and prisoners of state. Konigstein is the Bastille of Saxony ; in which many a brave man has pined out his life in duration.

‘ When I was there, parts of the rock were blown up to form casemates.’

casemates. In doing this was found a dungeon bored in the solid stone to the depth of sixty fathoms. At the bottom of this dungeon appeared a bedstead, on which a skeleton reposed, and by its side the remains of a dead dog.—Mournful sight for a heart possessed of the feelings of a man ! How savage the tyrant, that can invent such tortures for his fellow-creatures, and can lie down on his pillow, conscious, that in a hole like this a man is slowly consuming the lamp of life, feebly supported by vain hopes of his compassion ! Even now the walls of this prison confine three persons not unworthy of notice.

‘ One of these was private secretary to the court of Saxony, and in the year 1756 betrayed the secrets of Dresden archives to the king of Prussia. He was taken in Poland ; and has now been four and thirty years in a dungeon :—he still lives—but his appearance is more that of a wild beast than of a man.

‘ Another is one colonel Acton. He who is acquainted with the secret history of Dresden will remember the horrid poison scheme which was detected, but was thought proper to be kept secret. Acton was the chief in this conspiracy. He was by birth an Italian ; possessed a Calabrian heart ; was a bold and handsome man ; and was the favourite of the dowager electress.—This is a sufficient key to his history for those who are desirous of knowing what is become of Acton, who has still many friends in Dresden, and enjoys more liberty than his fellow prisoners. Where he is, however, he must die : but he is a great villain, and cannot accuse his imprisonment of injustice.

‘ The third is a fine young Swede. Six years ago he was arrested at Leipzig, at the private request of the king of Sweden, and brought to Konigstein in a mask. When he was taken he defended himself like a lion, claiming his right to be protected by the laws of nations. This man is excluded from the light of day. No one sees him ; no one speaks to him. And on pain of death no one must know what his name is, who he is, or that he is there. From what I could learn, he is no criminal ; he has had no trial ; but some state or love intrigue at the Swedish court has brought on him this fate. Pity him, reader ! he has no deliverance to hope but death : for the elector has promised the king of Sweden, that he shall never more behold the beams of the sun. He is now under thirty years of age, and the worthy governor cannot speak of him without the tear of compassion in his eye : he shrugs his shoulders, looks up to heaven, and says — it is the elector’s *order*, and I must obey. God help him !—

‘ It is not difficult to divine what passed in my mind at the thought of such a victim, when I could only cast a distant look at the grave where the unfortunate being sighs for deliverance. There is then a Bastille even in the humane country of Saxony, the sovereign of which has a heart possess of the noblest feelings !—

‘ But patience, unhappy Swede ! When I lay in the Bastille of Magdeburg, the mighty Frederic the Great said—whilst my name is Frederic, Trenck shall never see day.—Yet circumstances so fell out, that he himself set me free ; after which he lived three and twenty years, and still bore the name of Frederic. Every prison has an entrance ; and who can tell but that this Swede may find an exit also. When the Bastille was destroyed, a man was liberated, who had daily bedewed its stones with his tears for forty years, for having written, in the thoughtlessness of youth, a satire on a court strumpet, madame Pompadour. It is a horrible thing, that any one may intercede for a criminal condemned by the laws ; but for a prisoner of state no one must speak, no one must endeavour to mitigate his doom. Dreadful reflection for every honest citizen, who, when he hears such a story, cannot help thinking—to day it is thy turn ; to morrow perhaps mine, if some ministerial cabal be formed against me, or my gracious sovereign be persuaded to an undue stretch of authority.

‘ Happy the people, that know how to oppose an everlasting barrier to the exertion of arbitrary power ! Here I must draw the curtain.—Pity the good-hearted governor, who dares not in the least degree alleviate the sufferings of the victim committed to his charge.—My blood curdled, when departing I cast an eye back on the grave of a living being : and when I recollected, that I too was in Konigstein, I looked forwards with terror, lest the door should be shut on me likewise. With a heavy heart I returned to Dresden ; it was full, when from afar I looked back upon the rock ; yet I rejoiced that I was neither prisoner nor keeper there.’

The reflections in this passage are such as would naturally suggest themselves to a man who had been himself a state prisoner : and with the ideas that arose in Trenck’s mind at his departure, we were particularly pleased.

From the following passage, we learn the slavery in which the kings of France were used to be held.

‘ I was presented at court by the imperial ambassador, count Mercy. On this occasion I must say something that will appear laughable to those who are unacquainted with the etiquette of the French court. The king must not speak a word to any foreigner, who is presented to him by an ambassador, through his minister. At the same time it is next to an impossibility to obtain a private audience of him. This is probably an old ministerial artifice, to prevent the king from hearing what he ought to know. Now Trenck had been a common topic of conversation for some months ; and I had been assured, that the king, who never in his life read a book, had ordered my history to be read to him, had been moved by it in my favour, and wished personally to see me. When I was presented to him, he stood still for at least two minutes before me.

me, surveyed me with attention from head to foot, smiled graciously upon me, went to the door, returned again, came up close to me, surveyed me as before, smiled again, gave me a token of his favour by a slight inclination of his head, and then went away, after looking back at me when he came to the door.'

Shall we venture to parody the line ridiculed by Dr. Johnson? and say :

Who rules o'er slaves must be himself a slave.

Of extracts, enough. But we must not conclude without mentioning, that Schell, whom our readers will recollect to have accompanied Trenck in his escape from Glatz, and wandered with him through Poland, is still alive; though when our author wrote the former volumes, he had been deceived into a belief of his death. A lieutenant, previous to his quitting the Prussian service, he was at the age of seventy-four (in 1790) an *ensign* in the service of the king of Sardinia : but he had too much philosophy to repine, too much wisdom not to be content.

Historical View of Plans, for the Government of British India, and Regulation of the Trade to the East Indies. And Outlines of a Plan of Foreign Government, of Commercial Oeconomy, and of Domestic Administration, for the Asiatic Interests of Great Britain. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sewell. 1793.

THE work before us cannot possibly be regarded in any other point of view than as a publication of high national importance, if we consider it (as every circumstance attending its appearance indicates) as a work published under the immediate patronage of administration, and as containing their sentiments with respect to the future government and trade of India.

The volume contains a vast variety of information concerning India, from the very origin of that commerce which Europe now maintains with the East. It also presents to the reader's view a statement of all the different plans which the most eminent projectors have devised for the government of the British possessions there. On the three first great questions concerning this important subject we shall select the most eminent opinions.

' On what political principles can Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa be held by Great Britain ?

' As the committees of parliament were, at this juncture, carrying on their enquiries to ascertain the value of the British territorial acquisitions in the East, and to discover the extent of the errors into

which the different governors and councils had fallen ; the attention of all parties was turned to the general point of fixing the *principles* upon which our eastern dominions could be rendered efficient parts of the empire. All the plans agreed in the following particulars : that the distinction between Nizamut and Duannee should be abolished ; that there should be but one supreme government in the British possessions in India ; that the sovereignty of the state, over the whole, should be declared ; and Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa made British provinces. The difference in opinion chiefly arose on the mode of ascertaining the claims of the company upon these provinces. In the discussion of this subject the most opposite opinions were given.

‘ Mr. Francis thought, that the company, by its constitution, was unfit for the exercise of the sovereign power in the East ; but as it was questionable how far this power could be held in the name of the king, it would be better to keep it in the name of the company.

‘ Mr. Chambers thought that the company should hold their possessions of the king, but not of the Mogul ; that, at the same time, their engagements with the Mogul should be declared to be valid, in a proviso of an act of parliament, and that a compensation should be made to the Mogul for the loss of the revenue which the company had stipulated to pay to him. If this plan could not be followed, he was of opinion, that the king might consider the country as a conquered one, and that the company had held it in consequence of an agreement with his majesty and the parliament. In this case, the treaty of the company with the mogul must be declared to be founded in error ; that the nation, as such, was not engaged to fulfil this treaty, nor to pay a tribute for their possessions to a foreign prince. The whole of these principles he recommended to become the subject of parliamentary discussion ; and, to facilitate their coming to a decision upon them, he thought that the soubahdar would be contented with some honorary distinction, and with a pension equal to what he received from the company.’

‘ Sir Elijah Impey proposed vesting all the territories in the king ; but that the act should have a number of saving clauses in favor of the Nizam, the India princes, the foreign factories, &c. &c. which would have left the sovereignty as complicated as it found it.’

‘ 2. *In whom is to be vested the supreme executive power ?*

‘ The answers to this question brought forward discussions on the constitution of Great Britain, and Mr. Lind places them in the following order :

‘ Mr. Chambers was of opinion, that, for the purposes both of war and of peace, it would be expedient to give the same powers

to the governor-general and council, which are vested in the king, when he acts by the consent, and with the advice of his privy council ; but that this power ought to be guarded, with certain provisos, viz. Such governors should have none of the exemptions or immunities incident to the royal character ; none of the rights which arise to his majesty, from his prerogative of ancient possession ; none of those which are proposed to be given to the supreme court of judicature ; no power of pardoning criminals, condemned according to the forms of the English law ; no power of conferring any rank, known in Britain, except on their own officers ; but a right to give the rank of rajah to a Hindoo, and of nabob to a Mahomedan. There were certain ancient executive rights of the crown, which were abolished, at the time the constitution of Great Britain was settled ; and it might be expedient, to revive them in favour of the governor-general and council. Such were the powers of securing suspected persons ; the power of obliging them to quit our territories, unless they belonged to some European prince, or state, to whose factories they ought to be sent ; the power to guard the limits between the British and the neighbouring provinces, and between one British province and another. He proposed also, in certain cases, to give to the governor-general a negative voice on the acts of the council ; such as, in determining on the means to be used in quelling a sedition, or for repelling an invasion. In general, that his powers should be similar to those possessed by the Dutch governor at Batavia, with a responsibility for the manner in which he might exercise them.

‘ Sir John Clavering, in his correspondence of 1776 and 1777, advised, that the governor-general should have the power of entering a *noli prosequi*, and of suspending capital punishments, till his majesty’s pleasure should be known ; that he should have the power of prosecuting suspected persons in the supreme court of judicature, provided that they were not natives ; that he should have the power of laying on an embargo, of impressing men, and ships, of forming a militia, and, above all, that whatever powers were conferred on him, they should be distinctly defined and marked out.’

‘ 3d. By what persons, and under what restrictions is the power of subordinate legislation to be exercised ?

‘ Mr Chambers was of opinion, that though no inconveniency had hitherto arisen in Bengal, &c. from the powers exercised by the governors and councils, of making bye-laws ; yet that it might be expedient to form a general assembly with legislative power. That this assembly ought to consist of three distinct parts, viz. the governors-general, the supreme council, and the supreme court of judicature ; that it should have the power of enacting laws for natives and Europeans, and of enforcing obedience to them by ca-

pital or other penal sanctions, provided such laws should not be contrary to the authority of the king and parliament; nor contrary to any established law in England. The consent of each of these constituent parts ought to be obtained before any law can be deemed valid: it ought then to be transmitted to England, in the same manner as the subsisting bye-laws had been, for his majesty's approbation or disallowance. He proposed that the governor should be vested with the power of convening, proroguing, or adjourning this assembly. In all matters of public concern, its members ought to deliberate together, but to give their votes as separate bodies. Reserving to the judges the liberty of retiring to any other place, and deliberating apart. The act of the majority of any one branch to be considered as its voice; and no act of the legislation to pass unless there should be present, besides the governor-general, three members of council, and two of the judges. For the purpose of recording the proceedings of this assembly, there should be a clerk, to be chosen and removeable by the assembly; and it would be expedient that this clerk should also be secretary of the revenue branch. In case of any division in the council, it would be proper that the governor should have a negative on their resolutions; and if their votes were equal, the casting vote.

Mr. Hastings embraced the same opinion; but proposed, that the assembly should consist of two branches only, viz. the governor-general and council, and the supreme court of judicature; and that, jointly, they should form a supreme court of revenue, under the title of *Sudder Duannee Adaulat*.—That, in this capacity, the assembly ought to meet weekly, without summons, or oftener, if business should require it, upon the summons of the governor.

Sir Elijah Impey adopted and explained more fully this system of Mr. Hastings, and proposed to give to the assembly, so constituted, the powers of enacting laws, and of enforcing the observance of them by capital or other punishments; of regulating the police and taxes in Calcutta; of laying duties on export, import, and transit trade; of enacting rules for the practice of courts of justice; and of erecting new courts of justice, with such authority as the situation of the different districts might require.—That the exercise of these powers might not be abused, he thought no law ought to pass unless three members of the council and two of the judges were present. And that a majority of the voices of each, should be requisite to give their decisions the force of law. That such law should not be in force till thirty days after it had been registered, and English and Persian copies of it been affixed in the court-house of Calcutta, and in the inferior courts. That it should not be competent to the assembly to introduce any punishment for crimes committed by his majesty's European or Armenian subjects, that was unknown in England, nor to institute any criminal prosecution against them, unless by a jury, in the
supreme

supreme court, or in courts of quarter-session, held by a justice of the peace. From these privileges, however, he wished to except the class of banditti, called Dekoits. That the judges should transmit the laws passed in this assembly to the king and council, and that the governor-general should transmit copies of them to the directors. After his majesty's approbation, or disallowance of the law should be returned to Calcutta, he proposed, that it should be published in the same manner as the law originally had been, and that every person might have the power of appealing from a law so passed within sixty days after its publication in Bengal, and within the same number of days after its publication in England."

From these speculations we shall request our reader's attention to one of still more importance, that is, the plan which is recommended in this publication, and which may reasonably be supposed to be nearly that plan which will be adopted by the minister of India in parliament.

' From the kind of subordination then, which prevailed, during the vigour of the Mogul empire; from the intimation of the Mogul policy, by the successive usurpers in the different provinces; from the confusion which took place in the British presidencies, in consequence of divided authority among governors and councils, from the foresight of parliament, in changing this system, which might be proper for a commercial company, though not for a delegated sovereignty; and, in fine, from the experience of the beneficial effects of placing the provinces more immediately under the controul of executive government at home, it is demonstrative, that the plan of government for our eastern possessions, is that of one supreme governor, who shall have full authority over all the provinces, assisted by such councils as he may advise with; but without any right in them to check the exercise of his power in India, for which he is to be made responsible in England.

' The governor-general should appear to the natives to be absolute, in the degree in which their soubahdars were, though limited by the usages which regulated these officers; and, to the British subjects, serving the company, or residing under its protection, to have the supreme power in India, though responsible in Britain. It would be dangerous, with respect to the former, if we attempted to alter a system of government to which they look up for protection: we have recently seen, in the downfall of the most consolidated and polished monarchy in Europe, the evils and fatal consequences of innovation. It would be impolitic, with respect to the latter, because it might again introduce those cabals among the members of the different councils, and those unfair proceedings in trade, in India, which it has been the object of parliament to correct, punish, and prevent.

' The mode of civil government then, which the nature of the case,

case, and which experience points out for India, is that of a viceroy, or governor-general over all the settlements and interests of Great Britain in the East Indies. It is, at all times, much more wise to found upon the basis of an old and established system, than to substitute, in its place, the most plausible but untried theory.

* As the governor-general is, from his rank, both the representative of the ancient soubahdar of the Moguls, and of his majesty, it will be expedient that he should be vested with the dignity, as well as with the powers of office. In this way his situation will be accommodated to the ideas of the natives, respecting their sovereigns, and, at the same time, to the spirit of the British constitution, which admits of the delegation of such power to the representatives of the king, but makes them responsible for the exercise of it. The nomination, however, of the governor-general and presidents, may remain with the company, acting with the approbation and under the controul of the executive power.

* To prevent every appearance of change which might either unhinge the present foreign system, or alarm the natives (subjects of Great Britain) or the Indian states and princes in alliance with us, the present division of the presidencies ought to be continued. Bengal, both from the magnitude of our possessions, in the center of India, and from the established practice in public transactions with the native states and princes, ought to remain the seat of the supreme government. The presidencies of Madras and Bombay ought to continue subordinate to it. The governors of either should, in their particular settlements, derive their appointment from the same source with the governor-general, and under the like connexion with the executive power. They should be vested with a similar authority, in their respective presidencies, with that which the governor-general exercises in Bengal, under the exception, that in so far as regards their administration, they should be understood, both by the natives and by the British subjects, to be under the controul of the governor-general, and amenable to him for every part of their conduct. This dependency of the subordinate presidencies upon the supreme government, cannot be rendered so obvious to the natives, or fixed in itself, as by continuing the late powers given to the governor-general, of being supreme in any of the company's settlements, in which the state of the public affairs may require his presence.

* In the case of a vacancy happening in the office of governor-general, (who is also governor of the garrison of Fort William,) or in the office of president and governor of Fort St. George or of Bombay, these offices ought to be supplied by the company, under the restrictions already pointed out. His majesty, however, as at present, should have the power of recalling such governors or presidents, the recall being first signified to the court of directors,
by

by an instrument in writing, under his majesty's sign manual, counter-signed by the president of the board of commissioners for the affairs of India.

‘ Experience has shewn the inconveniency of having a president at Fort Marlborough in the island of Sumatra; and that the administration of affairs in India has been simplified, by reducing it to a residency, depending upon Fort William. Considerable saving has been made in the expences of maintaining it, as a residency only. It ought therefore to remain in this subordinate situation, and in case of any new establishments being made within the company's limits, they should be residencies only, subject (according to local situation and other accidental and expedient circumstances) either to the Bengal, or the Madras, or the Bombay presidencies.

‘ To prevent, as much as possible, jealousies or disputes from arising between the civil and military power, it ought to be left to the government, at home, to confer the appointments of governor-general and commander in chief, or presidents and commanders in chief, in the subordinate settlements, on the same or on different persons, as circumstances may require the union or separation of their duties. There was nothing which, during the first period of our power in India, appeared more unintelligible to the natives, than that an officer, at the head of an army, could be controuled by, or could pay obedience to a civil governor. Both, therefore, on account of the prejudices of the natives, and to prevent jealousies or embarrassments in the service, it may be proper, at one time, that the governor-general should also be a military officer, and one of reputation and of experience; at another time, as events may occur, a civil officer, whose knowledge and local experience may point him out to be the most proper person upon such an occasion. The executive responsible government, at home, can alone judge of these occasions. In the event, however, of a civil governor-general being appointed, the commander in chief ought to be held responsible only for the execution of the orders he may receive from his superior, the civil governor.

‘ Though the duties of governor-general, and presidents of the subordinate settlements, have been pointed out by the act 1784, and more fully defined by subsequent acts, and by the arrangements introduced by the commissioners for the affairs of India, it will be proper to explain them in detail, as the first and most important branch of this plan. The duties of the governor-general and subordinate presidents, ought to consist in receiving and answering all letters from the directors and from the executive government at home. In matters of a public concern, the governor-general should continue to address his letters to the secret committee, and in matters of a commercial nature, to the chairman of the court of directors. In either case, the court ought to be bound, forthwith,

forthwith, to communicate the contents to the commissioners for the affairs of India. This arrangement has had the effect of rendering the commissioners more positively responsible to parliament, and the directors to the proprietors. The governor-general, as president of the supreme council, ought to have the power of consulting with the members of council, and of ordering the consultations to be engrossed and reported. He is to summon councils, at specified times, as public or commercial business may require. He is to lay before the council reports from the subordinate boards, and, in fine, whatever matters of expediency he may think require their advice and assistance. He is to have the option, however, of deciding for himself, or of deciding by the majority of voices in the council; but, in both cases, he alone is to be responsible. He is to have the right of assigning his reasons, or not, to the council, for whatever opinion he may adopt; and, if he think it expedient, he may order the opinions of the members of council, first, to be reduced to writing; next, to be recorded; and, lastly, to be sent home with his own decision. He is not to be obliged to disclose the reasons of his opinion to the council, farther than may be necessary for carrying the business, upon which it is formed, into execution. He is, however, in all cases, to communicate it to the directors and to the executive government at home. He is always to preside in the public department, whether, when it is judging of the reports from the different stations in the presidency, under his immediate charge, of the intelligence he may receive from the residents at the courts of the country powers, or of the interferences which the British nation may have in India with the European powers.

‘ From the supremacy of the government of Bengal, all reports respecting the measures adopted, or proposed to be adopted, in the subordinate presidencies of Madras or Bombay, are to be made to him. In such cases, he is to disclose the contents of the dispatch to the council, and to require their opinions on them; but, on account of his responsibility, he is to be left at liberty to form a resolution for himself, and to explain his reasons, or not, to the council, as he may think it expedient. He is always to send home, with such decisions, copies of the correspondence, with the subordinate presidencies, as well as copies of the recorded opinions of the council, on the subjects of them, that the directors and the executive government may have the fullest information respecting the measure which has been adopted. That the whole business may be as much in unison as possible, he is to transmit also a copy of his own decision, not only as sent to the presidency which had applied for it, but to the other presidency, with his order for its conforming to his commands, in such manner as shall the most effectually secure the execution of them. In cases where it may be of advantage to have the opinion of the natives, on any matter,

matter, either of politics, or of commerce, it has been recommended, that the governor-general should have the power of calling upon such of the natives as may have been useful to the British nation, and of giving them such allowances as the nature of the service may require, or of conferring on them such *honours or titles* as may tend more effectually to secure their allegiance.

‘ The salary of the governor-general may be fixed, as at present, at 25,000*l.* per annum. He is to take the oath of fidelity, and against receiving presents or gratuities, directly or indirectly. In case of a breach of either oath, he is to be liable for a misdemeanor, and punishable by the committee of parliament, appointed for trying Indian delinquents. The evidence may first be taken in India, and next, transmitted by the supreme court of judicature to Britain, that the accused may be brought to trial within a specified time.

‘ Having thus defined the rank and duties of the governor-general and of the presidents of subordinate settlements, it will next be necessary to describe the offices and duties of the councils; it being always understood, that the powers given to the supreme council for Bengal (allowing for difference of circumstance), are the same which are to be exercised by the councils in the subordinate presidencies.

‘ Several circumstances, which experience has pointed out, will render it expedient to make some changes in this branch of the government. In the first place, the political situation of India, since Great Britain became possessed of territorial dominions, requires, that the councils should be composed of men conversant in public affairs, as well as in Asiatic commerce. Neither the species of education, which many of the company’s writers may have received, nor the opportunities of improvement which their subsequent habits of business may have afforded them, can, in many cases, qualify them (if succession is to proceed by seniority alone) to judge of the political interests of India, or of the connection which now subsists between Great Britain, as an Asiatic power, and the European nations having commercial and political interests in the East. It is necessary, therefore, that the council shall be composed of men fully qualified for their station, and not made up of those, to whom the accident of seniority, in the company’s service, might assign a seat in it. Seniority surely cannot form the financier, nor the statesman: both of these characters however must be found in the councils of our Asiatic presidencies, to which the governor-general or the presidents are to resort for advice in his or in their administration. Such characters may have arisen among the members of the successive councils in India; but these events can have no weight in the formation of a system, and can only be considered as contingent or fortunate. In the next place, it is evident, that no council can be properly composed, without including

cluding in it members who have had long practice and local experience in India, both in the novel subject of Indian politics and in the singular one of trade connected with the revenue. On this account, the directors, in concert with the executive government at home, ought to have the power of selecting members for the different councils, from the company's servants, of twelve years standing and employment in the country.

' That the constitution of the councils may embrace the whole of these ideas, it ought to consist of a specified number of members, besides the governor-general. They ought, from the nature of their duties (to be immediately described), to be in the nomination of the directors, acting in concert with the executive power, and selected from such of the company's servants as may be judged the best instructed in the politics and commerce of Europe and of India. It may be proper that they should have been twelve years resident in the settlement to which they are appointed. The power of recalling them ought to proceed upon the same principle with that of recalling governors and presidents.

' The duties and offices of members of council should be as follows. They ought to assist the governor-general, or presidents, with their advice, and to sanction the reports from the subordinate boards, in the manner that shall be immediately pointed out; they ought to share in all the functions of the executive government, whether in matters of political concern, in the distribution of justice as members of the Nizamut Adawlet, &c. in the regulation of police, or in the direction of commerce; and in whatever cases the governor-general, or presidents, exercising the executive power, may require their assistance.

' Supposing the governors and councils to be established upon this plan, the business ought to be conducted (as at present) by four distinct boards; the *board of council*, the *board of revenue*, the *board of trade*, and the *military board*.'

' Having thus marked out the kind of subordination which seems to be suited to the Asiatic subjects of Great Britain, we have next to ascertain the judicial, financial, and military powers required to perfect the establishment of it. Upon this interesting subject, certain leading circumstances will direct us. The servants of the company and the licensed inhabitants of the company will require the laws and law courts to which they have been habituated to appeal in Europe, while the natives will look for the continuation of the institutions and the jurisdiction which they understand, and to which they are, from education and prejudices, attached. The British subjects, in the same way, will expect such a system of revenue as can be rendered subservient to the maintenance of the British sovereignty, and yet be accommodated

to the trade by which the surplus revenue is to be realised in Europe. The natives will look back to the system of taxation understood in their country, and give their confidence to their European superiors, in proportion as the ancient financial system seems to remain. This system may become more fixed in its characters, and more mild in its practice, than that to which they or their ancestors have been subjected, by gradually introducing into it the mild maxims of the government of Britain; but as a system it cannot be wholly relinquished or abolished. The British army, in like manner, will expect a military arrangement coincident with that upon which the company's originally formed it; while the natives, who have hitherto looked up to the European art of war, as taught them by the English, and to a subordination with which they have been familiarised in a series of campaigns, will expect, under it, situations in which their allegiance and their valour can be observed and rewarded. Such are the judicial, financial, and military powers, by which that kind of government required for British India, must be supported; and from which it may be expected to derive energy and value.'

As Christians and churchmen, we could not observe without regret, that no plan appears in the course of this volume for the support or propagation of Christianity in the East. Independent of every religious consideration, ministry ought to know, that the firmest of political bonds is a union of sentiment; and, if it be even thought of little consequence to enlighten and improve the minds of the natives, we apprehend the spiritual instruction of the numerous bodies of Europeans who are settled there is still a matter of some importance.

Principles of Moral and Political Science; being chiefly a Retrospect of Lectures delivered in the College of Edinburgh.
By Adam Ferguson, LL. D. F. R. S. E. late Professor of Moral Philosophy. 2 Vols. 4to. 1l. 16s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

THE taste of the present age is not much disposed in favour of moral and metaphysical disquisition, nor is the work before us extremely favourable to the doctrines which are most in fashion upon those subjects.—It is, however, not the less valuable in our estimation, from this circumstance; and though the author cannot reasonably expect it to be a very popular publication; yet from the few who in an indolent and superficial age will have patience to travel through it, and judgment to know its worth, he will experience, we dare promise, much grateful commendation.

Dr.

Dr. Ferguson was called to the professorship of moral philosophy, in the University of Edinburgh, in the year 1764; and continued in it twenty years. When he entered on the duties of this office, he 'did not set himself at once to compose a course of lectures, to be read to his pupils; and thus to anticipate the labours of succeeding years: but, conceiving that discussion, and even information, might come with more effect from a person who was making his own highest efforts of disquisition and judgment, than from one who might be languishing while he read, or repeated a lecture previously composed; he determined, while he bestowed his utmost diligence in studying the subject, in chusing the order in which it was to be treated, and in preparing himself for every successive step he was to make in his course, to have no more in writing than the heads, or short notes, from which he was to speak; preparing himself however very diligently for every particular day's work.

By this means, except in so far as the particular views of his subject became familiar to him, his last year's labour was nearly as great as the first.

In proportion as his notes acquired a certain form, he had them printed for the use of his students; first under different titles; but, at last, under the title of *Institutes of Moral Philosophy*. He nevertheless experienced, that the course he was to follow, even when so fixed, was subject to some variations; and, as these appeared to be improvements, and served to enliven his own task with some accessions of novelty, he did not attempt to restrain them.

When his health obliged him to retire from the labours of teaching, he was glad to find that even the decline of life might be employed, though not in attempting the invention of systems entirely new, at least in recalling labours which were past, and in filling up general titles already investigated with some of his customary discussion and illustration.

'In performing this work, however,' Dr. Ferguson acknowledges that 'he has indulged the same, or perhaps greater freedoms than he was wont to take in renewing his course of disquisition and argument, from year to year. He conceived that what is intended for a book submitted to public inspection, might require the suppression of some things not improper in the first introduction of youth to the study of a subject. He has, therefore, omitted some titles which were entered in his notes and in the *Institutes*. He has likewise treated the history of the species in a different manner; not without hopes that this his last method, in the order of progression, may have gained some advantage over the former; and that the public will impute defects in the execution of his work to circumstan-

ces in which he has reason to hope for all the effects of candour and even of indulgence.'

The first part of this work treats of the Fact, or of the most general Appearances in the Nature and State of Man; the author commences with the consideration of man's place and description in the scale of being. He begins with the distinction of living and active natures; describing afterwards the distinction of animals associating and political; the principles of society in human nature; the intercourse or communication of animals, and the language of man; and man's distinction among the animals. With respect to the principles of society in human nature, the professor observes, that the general combination of parts in the system of nature; the mutual subserviency of different orders of beings on this globe; the natural attachment of individuals, in every species of living creatures, to some others of their kind; and the frequency of gregarious and political assemblage in the description of different animals, must greatly facilitate the admission of society as a part in the destination of man; or indeed, joined to the fact that men are actually found in society, render argument on the subject of his qualification for such a state entirely superfluous. The author's purpose, therefore, is rather to specify the character of human society, than to evince its reality, as the state or condition in which man is destined to act.

Dr. Ferguson next proceeds to treat of mind, or the characteristics of intelligence; taking a view of knowledge in general; of the actual sources of knowledge and measures of evidence; of the laws or canons of evidence; of observation; of memory; of imagination; of abstraction; of science; of the primary sources of inclination in human nature; of the sources of caprice and adventitious affection or passion; of will and freedom of choice; of the nature and origin of moral science; of the sources of religion amongst mankind; of the origin of evil.

The freedom of the human will having been strongly contested by different writers on morality and religion, we shall lay before our readers the acute observations adduced on this interesting subject by the author of the present work:

'The power of choice is a fact of which the mind is conscious: it is therefore supported by the highest evidence of which any fact is susceptible. Attempts to support it by argument are nugatory, and attempts to overthrow it by argument are absurd.

'The axiom, that every effect must have a cause, cannot bring any new light on this subject. The axiom itself is no better known than the fact, that will is free, and truths are certainly consistent one with the other. The consciousness of freedom hath been term-

ed a deceitful feeling; but why not the axiom, that every effect must have a cause, a deception also? If we say the axiom is a necessary truth; it may be so when well understood. Effect is correlative to cause, and they are inseparable; but there may be existence without any cause external to itself, as there may be will without any cause but the mind that is willing.

‘ Every rational action, indeed, has a motive; for the very purpose which constitutes rationality is itself a motive: but, may not the mind determine itself; and, amidst the considerations or objects which are presented to its choice, be the cause of its own determination? If there be always a consideration upon which minds are willing or unwilling, it were absurd, nevertheless, to consider violation as an act of necessity, not of choice. Such substitutions of mechanical imagery, in this, as in many other instances, serve to mislead our conception. Under such images, the mind, in the midst of its motives, is conceived as a tennis ball impelled at once in many directions, while it can move but in one direction. Will is the direction of mind, and is always such as it receives from some one of its motives. Here the analogy, though far from being perfect, is supposed to convey the idea of necessity from matter to mind: for what know we else of necessity, it is said, but that an effect ever follows its cause?

‘ In this case, however, we endeavour to confound matters which are far from being alike. The effect on the tennis ball is not conformable to any one impression, but is a compound of all. Did the body, which is struck by opposite forces, take account of their number, direction, and power, and, upon a fair estimate of that which was strongest, chuse to move in the direction of some determinate force, the analogy would be complete; but the inference to be drawn upon this supposition, instead of extending necessity to mind, would communicate freedom to matter.

‘ The consideration that infinite power must have preordained the operations of will, and that these operations therefore cannot be free, is an argument taken from conjecture from a collateral subject, to overthrow a fact of which we are conscious.

‘ The implication of universal prescience in the perfect intelligence of God, from which we would infer, that every future event is no less certainly future, than that every past event is certainly past, is an argument of the same kind. We would reject a fact that is perfectly within our cognisance, on the credit of an argument taken from a subject that is beyond our reach. We know too the nature of divine omniscience; and, if the Almighty hath opened a source of contingency in nature, we may suppose that contingency itself is a perfection in his works. Who can doubt that intelligence is a quality of the highest order in the scale of created being; and that discernment and freedom of choice are essential to intelligent beings.

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‘ The knowledge which we ascribe to the Author of nature comprehends, no doubt, whatever may result from the source of contingency, which he has opened in the freedom of his intelligent creatures, and his almighty providence is sufficient to controul the effects of such freedom. He foresees, we conceive, that absolute evil under such government cannot befall the universe : for whatever be the contingent effect of freedom, it is ever susceptible of remedy and it is ever good that intelligent beings should be free.

‘ The decrees of almighty power are not less eternal in being made at any one point of duration in preference to another. The date of their existence is ever present. Such is the eternal *Now*, to which we sometimes strive, but perhaps in vain, to elevate our thoughts on this subject.

‘ The consequence which the fatalist would draw from the supposed necessity of human action, is likewise absurd. The necessity consists in the relation of motive and will. Every choice, no doubt, proceeds on a motive ; for the purpose, which is supposed in every act of intelligence, is itself a motive : but how absurd for the fatalist to plead that he is not accountable for having committed a bad action ; under pretence that his intention itself, which was the motive or cause of such action, was bad ! It is evident that the inference should be, not impunity to the person who acts from a bad motive, but the expedience of employing some counter motive to restrain the bad one : and this precisely is the nature of punishment, whether operating by necessity or choice.

‘ After all, in treating of the human will, the names of liberty and necessity may be disputed ; but notorious facts are foundation enough, upon which we may safely erect the fabric of moral science, so far as it is of any importance to mankind.’

After a series of profound reasoning, and a very satisfactory developement of the subjects abovementioned, the author pursues, in the third chapter, the consideration of man's progressive nature ; treating first of the distinction of natures, progressive and stationary, and its immediate application to the subject of science. Many pertinent observations are adduced in the illustration of this enquiry ; and the author marks with philosophical precision the laws and limits of reasoning, by which it ought to be conducted. The following extract affords very just and clear ideas respecting the original state of society ; a subject which has been variously agitated by moral and political writers :

‘ Under this term, of the *State of Nature*, authors affect to look back to the first ages of man, not without some apparent design to depreciate his nature, by placing his origin in some unfavour-

able point of view; as we derogate, from the supposed honours of a family, by looking back to the mechanics or peasants, from whom its ancestors were descended.

‘Hobbes contended, that men were originally in a state of war, and undisposed to amity or peace; that society, altogether unnatural to its members, is to be established and preserved by force. Or this, at least, may be supposed to follow from his general assumption that the state of nature was a state of war.

‘If this point must be seriously argued, we may ask in what sense war is the state of nature? Not surely the only state of which men are susceptible; for we find them at peace as well as at war: nor can we suppose it the state which mankind ought at all times to prefer; for it labours under many inconveniences and defects: but it was, we may be told, the first and the earliest state, from which men were relieved by convention and adventitious establishments.

‘This assertion, that war was the earliest state of mankind, is made without proof; for the first ages of the human species, in times past, are as little known as the last, that may close the scene of its being in times to come. In every progression, it is true, may be conceived, a point of origin, and a point of termination, to be collected from the direction in which the progress proceeds. The sun, even by a person who never saw him rise or set, may be supposed, from the course he holds, to have risen in the east, and to set in the west. Man, who is advancing in knowledge and art, may be supposed to have begun in ignorance or rudeness; but it is not necessary to suppose that a species, of whom the individuals are sometimes at war, and sometimes at peace, must have begun in war. There is, on the contrary, much reason to suppose, that they began in peace, and continued in peace, until some occasion of quarrel arose between them.

‘The progress of the species, in population and numbers, implies an original peace, at least, between the sexes, and between the parent and his child, in family together; and, if we are to suppose a state of war between brothers, this, at least, must have been posterior to the peace in which they were born and brought up, to the peace in which they arrived at the possession of those talents, and that force, which they come to employ for mutual destruction.

‘Another philosopher, in this school of nature, has chosen to fix the original description of man, in a state of brutality, unconscious of himself, and ignorant of his kind; so far from being destined to the use of reason, that all the attempts he has made, at the exercise of this dangerous faculty, has opened but one continual source of depravation and misery.

‘But, as the former of these philosophers has not told us what beneficent power, different from man himself, has made peace for
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this refractory being; no more has the other informed us, who invented reason for man; whose thoughts and reflections first disturbed the tranquillity of his brutal nature, and brought this victim of care into this anxious state of reflection, to which are imputed so many of his follies and sufferings.

‘Until we are told by whom the state of nature was done away, and a new one substituted, we must continue to suppose that this is the work of man himself; and the whole of what these shrewd philosophers have taught, amounts to no more than this, that man would be found in a state of war, or in a state of brutality, if it were not for himself, for his own qualifications, and his endeavours to obtain a better; and that, in reality, the situation he gains is the effect of a faculty by which he is disposed to chuse for himself.

‘This we are ready to admit. Man is made for society and the attainments of reason. If, by any conjuncture, he is deprived of these advantages, he will sooner or later find his way to them. If he came from a beginning, defective in these respects, he was, from the first, disposed to supply his defects; in process of time has actually done so, continued to improve upon every advantage he gains: and thus to advance, we may again repeat, is the state of nature relative to him.’

The author next investigates the principles of progression in human nature, among which the first that present themselves are the vegetating and animal powers. These powers are known only by their effects, operating in the midst of organs and combinations of matter, subject to waste, and requiring supply. With these are connected, in the human frame, a power of intelligence, conscious of itself, and of its gradual enlargement. This important circumstance, the professor observes, is not otherwise known than as a fact, or as the particular phenomenon of a general law, common to all living and active natures: ‘That a faculty, or organ, which is properly exerted, gets accession of strength or mass; whilst that which is overstrained, or neglected, goes to decay.’ Hence the improvement of the human faculties depends on the propriety of their exercises; and the progress of the species itself will, without their intending it, keep pace with the ordinary pursuits, in which successive generations are engaged. Under the general title of exercises, are to be included the various pursuits, into which mankind are led by the wants and necessities they have to supply, the inconveniences they have to remove, or the advantages which are placed in their view; as the spur which nature applies to excite and direct their exertions. In each of these various pursuits, or applications of mind, the operation passes not away in mere transient exertion, but is, by

continuance, productive of habit, or facility of doing again what has been done. Habit, it may be observed, is that, by which the good or bad actions of men remain with them, and become part of their characters. This is a subject of the utmost importance to morals; and is, therefore, prosecuted by the author with great perspicuity in a number of subsequent sections. He first treats of habit in general; afterwards, of habits of thinking; of habit as it affects the inclinations of men, and their capacity of enjoyment and suffering; of the effects of habit in the acquisition of strength and power; of the results of habit in the general history of the human species; of ambition, or the desire of something higher than is possessed at present; of the commercial arts; of the political arts; of the pursuits and attainments of science; of the fine arts; of the progress of moral apprehension; of a future state.

In treating of the last of those subjects, as well as of others in preceding sections, the author's intention is to explore the regions of conjecture, so far as they are open to mere human reason, and independent of all information from a superior source. He justly observes, that if the period of animal life be hid in obscurity, it is not surprising, that the prospect of future existence, in a state of separation from the body, should also be involved in great darkness. Without detailing the metaphysical arguments and observations advanced in the prosecution of this enquiry, we shall present our readers with the result of the author's ingenious and highly philosophical investigation.

‘ In this variety of being, we observe the gradation of excellence displayed on a scale of great extent. The parts rise above one another by slow and almost insensible steps. That man is placed at the top of this visible scale has never been questioned. In his alliance with the animal kingdom, he is enabled to perceive the material system around him, to hold converse with those of his own species, and to observe, in the operations of nature, marks of intelligence which inexpressibly surpass the powers of man. In this, while he derives knowledge from the source of perceptions, in which he partakes with the animals, he aspires to communication with an order of being greatly superior to his own. In respect to the animal part of his nature, he is made to pass through certain variations similar to the changes which other animals undergo; and like them he is made to encounter, at different periods of his progress, an apparent termination of life: but, as he passes from the state of an embryo or a fœtus to that of a breathing animal; as he passes from the state of an infant, through that of youth and manhood, to old age; so may he pass, at the
dissolution

dissolution of his animal frame, to a new state of intelligent being, furnished with other organs of perception, and other means of communication with minds like his own; while the steps of their common parent and Maker become still more and more obvious in that order of things, through which they are destined to pass.

‘ Thus, it appears no violent stretch of imagination to conceive the human soul, in its present state, as the embryo of a celestial spirit, not as a mere principle of animal life, to determine, or have its end, when that life shall come to a close.

‘ Man, as hath been observed in stating his place among the animals, partakes with them in the description of an organized material frame; in certain animal powers and instincts, which are necessary or conducive to his preservation or to his progress through the different stages of life. His instincts, mean while, direct him to the end, rather than the means he is to employ for the attainment of that end; these are left, in a great measure, to his own choice. Even the end he takes upon him in process of time to select; and, upon principles derived from the knowledge of himself and his situation, adopts a plan of life, different from that which would result from any particular appetite, passion, or disposition of his nature; even of those, he takes upon him to judge, from the higher principle of intelligence; and rejects or conforms himself to their dictates, according as he thinks it proper for himself, and for the order of nature in which he is involved.

‘ The animals are qualified, by their organization and their instincts, for the particular element and the circumstance in which they are placed, and they are not fit for any other: but man, by his intelligent powers, is qualified for any scene, of which the circumstances may be observed, and in which the proprieties of conduct may be understood.

‘ There are limits set to the progress of his animal frame. It is stationary; it declines; and is dissolved: but to this progress of intelligence, in ascending the scale of knowledge and of wisdom, there are not any physical limits, short of the universe itself, which the happy mind aspires to know, and to the order of which he would conform his will.

‘ While, in this mixed nature of man, the animal is doomed to perish, the intellectual part may continue to live in immortal youth. Their connection, indeed, while it remains, implies a certain sympathy of the one with what affects the other. The body suffers under dejection of mind; and the mind languishes under disease of the body. This sympathy is observable in the decline of age, as well as in the occasional checks which health may receive, during the vigour of life; but its effects are not universal, nor keep pace with the decline of the animal frame, or

approach to its dissolution. Many retain the faculties, at that period, superior to any bodily infirmity; or rather, when the band that connects the soul with its animal frame is about to dissolve, seem to anticipate that serenity to which they are destined, upon entire separation from this mass of earth.

‘ Examples of man’s intellectual attainments, of which some have been mentioned in the preceding sections, may serve to shew also how much farther he may advance, in continuing to extend the ranges of knowledge and of thought, and in gaining such accession of wisdom and goodness, as may qualify him for higher scenes of existence. The object assigned by Julian to Marcus Aurelius was not any vulgar flight of ambition, like that of Alexander or Cæsar, to surpass or to command mankind, but imitation and resemblance of the supreme God; and he attained to a species of godlike eminence, which qualified him for a much higher scene of existence, than that of the empire over which he presided.

‘ From such examples we may presume to hope, that the Almighty power which preserves the animal, until the attainable ends of the animal life are obtained, will also preserve this intelligent being to make those attainments of which it is susceptible, to which it aspires, and in which it is actually far advanced.

‘ This argument, however, may seem to halt with respect to those who have made no such use of their faculties; with respect to those who are cut short even in the progress of animal life; with respect to those who perish soon after their birth, or at an early period; or those who live to employ their talents, as the instincts of a brute are employed, for mere animal purposes; and with respect to those more especially, who become more brutish and selfish as they advance in years. In respect to such instances, we must confess, that there must be just apprehensions of future punishment, not of reward, and doubts of their being destined to raise a superstructure, of which they have not laid a foundation; these are not fitted to supply the flock of celestial spirits; nor is it contrary to the analogy of nature, in the course of things with which we are acquainted, to suppose that, while such as become qualified for higher scenes of existence are conducted thither, the unqualified will miscarry; and such as are debased, more especially, may sink in the scale of being, or actually perish.’

Having already intimated, that the sentiments delivered in the preceding extract are entirely founded on the principles of reason, distinct from other authority, it is unnecessary to make any remark on the consequences deduced from the mode of investigation.

(To be continued.)

The Patriot. Addressed to the People, on the present State of Affairs in Britain and in France. With Observations on Republican Government, and Discussions of the Principles advanced in the Writings of Thomas Paine. 8vo. 1s. Nicol. 1793.

THIS writer asserts that, for a nation to be free, it is NOT sufficient that she *wills* it—that, ‘the period of the last century in which the English republic stood, was a period of the extinction of liberty’—that, at the Revolution, ‘our ancestors submitted themselves and their posterities for ever’—that it is a fallacy to maintain ‘that a whole nation have, at all times, a right to alter their government’—that the constitution of this country exists ‘in the statutes at large, and in the hearts of the people as a *system of principles*.’ There is neither sufficient ingenuity nor energy in the arguments employed in support of these positions, to justify us in detailing them to our readers. The substance and object of them are in a great measure conveyed in the following quotation, which the author has selected from the excellent remarks on Paine by Mr. Adams, vice-president of the American States.

‘I have assumed as a principle,’ says he, ‘that the English nation, having delegated all their collective power, have no right, in their original character, to change their form of government, unless it has become absolutely inadequate to the purposes for which it was instituted. The people themselves must, from the necessity of the case, be the judges of this fact; but if, in forming this judgment, and acting in pursuance of it, they proceed from faction, and not from principle, if they dissolve their compact from an idea that ‘they have a right to do whatever they choose,’ and break the bands of society because such is their pleasure, they may indeed go through the operation by the plenitude of their irresistible power, but the nation will meet with ample punishment in their own misery, and the leaders who delude them, in the detestation of their own posterity. It is not by adopting the malignity of a political satyr, by converting the fallies of wit into the maxims of truth and justice, or by magnifying trivial imperfections into capital crimes, that a nation will be justified in resorting to its original strength, to contend against its delegated power. It is not a mechanical horror against the name of a king, or of aristocracy, nor a physical antipathy to the sound of an extravagant title, or to the sight of an innocent ribbon, that can authorise a people to lay violent hands upon the constitution, which protects their rights, and guards their liberties. They must feel an actual depri-

deprivation of their equal rights, and see an actual impossibility for their restoration in any other manner, before they can have a right to lay their hands on their swords, and appeal to heaven.'

The author then presents us with a picture of the old government of France, which is not deficient or incorrect in the colouring. We cannot say much of what follows on the French constitution, which the author alleges to have failed from the want 'of power, of influence, and of principle,' and he proceeds, though in a manner not very perspicuous, to examine it under those several heads. We shall not attempt to follow him through these discussions except in the second instance, in which he 'boldly' asserts that 'a system of *influence* is necessary to a free government.' It may be observed that the author brings this forth with a sort of effort, as though he laboured whilst he wrote it, and felt a conscious doubt as to its being well received. In maintaining this hazardous doctrine, however, we cannot deny but he conducts himself with ability. But our readers will judge for themselves.

'The French government formed by the constituent assembly, wanted *influence*.—A man may be induced to do his duty in his station, and to serve his country, either by compulsion or by inclination. Under despotic governments, compulsion is the only means employed; the public is served, but the individuals are degraded and enslaved. In limited governments, compulsion is adopted no farther than necessity and equity require; that is, it is employed to prevent injury and wrong, and to secure the public peace, and the general safety. In free governments, therefore, when men act according to their choice in most occasions of life, it is necessary, that the stream of general *inclination* should be preserved on the side of the constitution.'

'The want of this system enervated the constitution of the French assembly 1791; that the same cause holds the nation of France at this time in ruins; and that the destruction of that system in any country, will infer unavoidably the loss of its freedom and its peace. The millennium is not yet come; it is not the fairs only for whom the governments of the earth are intended, but mankind, in mixed society, with all their varieties of disposition, and with all their imperfections; and it must be a powerful spring of action which will carry them on in an uniform and salutary course. But what is this system of influence, say the reformers of the day, is it not corruption? The farthest from it in the world: corruption and bribery are the excrescences and blemishes sometimes appended to this system, but they have no relation to its essence. Corruption gives men an interest to do wrong, but the system of influence is that which makes it every man's interest

to do right, to be a virtuous citizen, and to make the full exertion of his talents in his proper sphere, and suggests the permanent motives of good conduct in the same course which the truest patriotism could dictate.

‘ The system of influence operates, in the disposal of offices, civil, military, naval, and ecclesiastical, and in the legal security which gives value to promotion. It emanates from the crown in a limited monarchy, and is the price which must be paid for universal freedom, to render it consistent with order;—if, indeed, that can be deemed a price, which is itself an acquisition and a benefit; which gives animation to the whole of public life; which calls up the talents of able men in every department of society; which provides rewards for merit and industry; and which joins the general and the particular interest in one indissoluble bond.

‘ The system of influence is the introduction of rewards into the scheme of government, and gives that excellence to a constitution which many politicians have believed to be impracticable, asserting that punishments only were the instruments of human governments, and that civil rulers were naturally incompetent to a moral administration by rewards: and the advantage of the scheme flows, not merely, nor chiefly, from public remuneration, but from the influence of hope and confidence, and of the laudable ambition connected with public duty, which it nourishes in a thousand different departments.’

These remarks are followed by a striking though not impartial relation of the events which have occurred in France since the abolition of royalty, and the author draws the following conclusions:

‘ 1st, It is impossible, in the nature of things, that France can remain in her present situation, and settle her government on the plan of a democratical republic. How the scene of misery and confusion, in which she is plunged, will terminate, no man can foretell. Whether, crushed by the united force of Europe, which she has wantonly provoked against her, she shall fall as a state; or, whether the French nation, groaning, as our ancestors did, under the scourge of republican factions, and stung by the vipers of democracy, will restore their monarchy to arbitrary sway; or whether, instructed by their sufferings, they may ever be able to unite in the plan of a limited monarchy, and obtain at last the blessing of a free constitution, balanced and consolidated by the efficacy of the three estates, like the great prize which Britain drew at the Revolution, it is not for us to explore. The arrangement is in the womb of time; but this we do know, that the French have not yet got sight of their constitution, on which they are to find rest; that they have commenced the movement which they cannot stop, and must pass through the fire, (as we did in the Cromwellian times),

times), till the nation is purified and restored to its standard by sufferings.

‘ 2d, The only constitution, under which a great and populous nation can enjoy peace, comfort, and felicity, is that of a limited monarchy: it is under this government only, that the subject can sit in quiet under his own fig-tree, and where there is none to make him afraid. Where king and rulers, and judges, and magistrates, and people, and leaders of the people, are all under the same system of well known laws; and where equality, in respect of protection, and liberty attached to justice, are ascertained and guarded by the prompt administration which monarchy only can yield.’

Our author next considers the state of this country as it relates to what is alleged, on the subject of its government, by Mr. Paine. We shall not follow him through this discussion, but conclude with declaring our opinion, that this publication ranks among the better productions on that side of the question which the author espouses.

The Old Manor House. A Novel. By Charlotte Smith. Four Vols. 12mo. 15s. sewed. Bell. 1793.

AMONG the various productions of literary genius, there is, perhaps, none that has a more legitimate claim to an ascendancy over the human mind than a well written novel. There is, moreover, no species of writing whatever better calculated for conveying, in the most engaging manner, useful instruction and moral truths to a numerous description of readers, who, either averse from the labour of serious application, or unqualified for the office of abstruse investigation, turn with alacrity from the dry and thorny paths of science, to scenes where passion awakes amidst natural events, and imagination sports amidst probable vicissitude. To the man of genuine taste, genius, and information, a finer field cannot open for a display of literary talents; to a proper and a well cultivated mind, a more favourable theatre cannot present itself for an exhibition of whatever is great, and good, and amiable in human nature. But as the execution of this species of writing requires a happy combination of parts and acquirements very rarely conjoined in the same person; and as the usual limits which bound and divide mental abilities are seldom overstepped, so do we find that the number of those who have arrived at excellence in this walk of polite literature has been but small. The creative powers of invention may indeed furnish plot and incident, and the suggestions of a tender and a susceptible mind produce occasionally circumstances to interest

rest and affect the heart. But he who aspires to pre-eminence as a novelist, or looks forward with fond expectations to future applause, must possess very superior qualifications, both mental and acquired, before he can obtain that celebrity which can secure him a temporary fame, or recommend him to the attention of posterity. To conduct a series of familiar events so as to rouse and preserve attention, without a violation of nature and probability; to draw and support the different characters necessary for an animated and varied drama in just and glowing colours; to hold up the mirror of truth in the moment of youthful intemperance, and to interweave amidst the web of fable, pictures to instruct, and morals to reform, requires such strength of genius; such stores of wit, humour, and original fancy; such nice discrimination of character, and such intimate and universal knowledge of the world, as very seldom fall to the lot of humanity in the same individual. In support of these assertions, and in vindication of our opinions relative to the difficulties annexed to what is called *novel writing*, we need only appeal to facts, and by a single coup d'œil distinguish, amidst innumerable competitors for fame, those who by a rare and happy combination of talents have succeeded in this species of composition. We mean not to be invidious by a comparative view of living authors, or by giving a marked preference to any. We may, however, with some safety and confidence assert, that in the course of two centuries, and during the æra of polite learning in Europe, the number of novelists who have arrived to that degree of fame which will entitle their labours to the admiration of posterity is extremely limited, in which number, for the farther information of those concerned, we include a Cervantes, a Le Sage, a Rousseau, and a Voltaire.

We have been led to these animadversions by the perusal of the work immediately under our inspection, and as it is the avowed production of a lady who has already furnished the public with several ingenious performances, and who has obtained a very considerable share of public approbation; we conceived ourselves called upon to deliver our sentiments at some length on a subject to which we seldom dedicate so large a portion of our Review. We shall now take a general view of the merits of Mrs. Smith's last production, compared with the requisites which we have already specified, and which we conceive indispensable in the formation of a good novel.

After a perusal of these four volumes we are forced to confess, that though we have found much to commend, we have also found much to disapprove. From the name of Mrs. Charlotte Smith we certainly were led to expect something
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above the common love cant of novels; some novelty in the delineation of character; some new and interesting description; some artful concealment of plot; some happy and ingenious developement and design.—At all events, we fully persuaded ourselves we should not wander long in search of what is exemplary and amiable in the eye of virtue; and that, whatever deficiencies might appear in regard to taste or invention, the picture of moral rectitude would never be defaced, nor the colouring of honourable sentiment ever obscured. How much we were disappointed in these expectations may be collected from the following leading circumstances in the Old Manor House.

A young man of family, education, and great expectations becomes violently enamoured of a young girl of low birth, illiterate, and poor, who acts as a kind of upper servant in the Old Manor House, and who is niece to Mrs. Lennard, house-keeper to the proprietor, Mrs. Rayland. As the rigid severity and caution of the aunt precludes all possibility of interviews between the two lovers during the day, Orlando (the hero of the piece), tries every expedient to obtain interviews by night; but as the fair Monimia is regularly locked up by the implacable aunt in a remote turret of the Old Manor every night at an early hour, Orlando finds all his invention fruitless, till accident discovers an old back-door, which had been long shut up and concealed from view, and which, on removing some wood and forcing open, he finds, to his inexpressible transport, leads to a stair-case which terminates at another door, against which no barrier presents itself than the head of Monimia's bed. This trifling impediment (as the bed runs on castors), the prudent and timid Monimia quickly removes; and, after a rapturous scene, it is agreed upon between the lovers, that, to prevent discovery, and to enjoy each other's society without restraint, Monimia, after all the family retire to rest, is to be conducted by Orlando every night, from her turret through an old chapel which leads to his apartment at the other extremity of the Old Manor House, unoccupied by any of the family but himself. Here the lovers nightly meet and exchange mutual vows of everlasting constancy, till an alarming circumstance induced them for some time to change the place of interview to Monimia's *bed-room in the turret*.—As this incident is described with considerable effect, and is among the most interesting events in the work, we with pleasure break off our narrative to lay it before our readers, as a specimen of Mrs. Smith's powers in exciting emotions of terror.

Orlando, with more than usual tenderness, endeavoured to
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sooth and re-assure her—when suddenly, as he hung fondly over her, speaking to her in a low voice, she started, and said, in a whisper, “Hush, hush—for heaven’s sake—I hear a noise in the chapel.” Orlando listened a moment. “No—it is only the wind, which is very high to-night.” But listening again a moment, he thought, as she did, that it was something more; and before he had time to imagine what it might be, the old heavy lock of the study door, that opened from the passage to the chapel, was moved slowly; the door as slowly opened, and at it a human face just appeared. Starting up, Orlando, whose fears were ever alive for Monimia, blew out the single candle which stood at some distance from them; and then springing towards the door, he demanded fiercely who was there? Monimia, whose terror almost annihilated her faculties, would have thrown herself into his arms, and there have waited the discovery which appeared more dreadful than death: but he was instantly gone, and pursued through the chapel a man, whom however he could not overtake, and who seemed at the door to vanish—though the night was so dark, that it was impossible to distinguish any object whatever. Through the chapel he had heard the sound of feet; but when he got to the porch, and from thence listened for the same sound to direct his pursuit along the flag-stones, it was heard no more. All was profoundly silent, unless the stillness was interrupted by the howling of the wind round the old buildings.

Orlando, after a moment’s pause, was disposed to fasten the chapel door before he returned; but he recollected that perhaps he might enclose an enemy within it, or impede the escape of his Monimia to her turret. Uncertain therefore what to do, but too certain of the agonizing fears to which he had left her exposed, he hastily went back; and securing that door which led from the chapel to the passage as well as he could (for there was no key to it, and only a small rusty bar), and then fastening the door of the study, he approached, by the light of the wood fire which was nearly extinguished, the fainting Monimia, who, unable to support herself, had sunk on the ground, and rested her head on the old tapestry chair on which she had been sitting.

Orlando found her cold, and almost insensible; and it was some moments before he could restore her to her speech. Terror had deprived her of the power of shedding tears; nor had she strength to sit up: but when he had placed her in her chair, he was compelled to support her, while he endeavoured to make light of a circumstance that overwhelmed him with alarm for her, and with vexation beyond what he had ever yet experienced.

They had both distinctly beheld the face, though neither had the least idea to whom it belonged. Orlando had as distinctly heard the footsteps along the hollow ground of the chapel; it was not therefore one of those supernatural beings, to whose existence

Monimia

Monimia had been taught to give credit. Orlando would willingly have sheltered himself under such a prejudice, had it been possible; for all the ghosts in the Red Sea would have terrified him less than the discovery of Monimia by any of the family: yet, that such a discovery was made, he could not doubt; and the more he thought of even its immediate consequences, and the impossibility there might be to reconvey his lovely trembling charge to her own room, the greater his distraction became; while all he could make Monimia say, was, "Dearest Orlando, let me stay and die here. A few hours longer of such extreme pain, as I at this moment suffer, will certainly kill me: and if I die in your presence, my death will be happier than my life *has* been, or than now it ever can be."

Orlando being thus under the necessity of conquering his own extreme disquiet, that he might appease hers, began to make various conjectures as to this man, tending to encourage the hope that it was some accidental intruder, and not one whose business was to discover her. "But even if the villain came with that design," said he, "I do not believe he could distinguish you, so instantly I blew out the candle: or, if he saw a female figure, he could not know it to be you; it might as well be any other woman." These suppositions had little power to quiet the fears with which Monimia was tormented: but when Orlando seemed so deeply affected by her situation; when he declared to her that he was unequal to the sight of her terror; and that not even the discovery they dreaded, could make him so wretched as seeing her in such a situation; she made an effort to recover herself; and at length succeeded so well as to regain the power of consulting with him, as to what was best to be done.

It was now early morning, but still very dark, with rain and wind. It was however time to consider of Monimia's return; for within two hours the servants would be up, and in even less time the labourers in the gardens would come to their work. It was at length agreed, that Orlando should go through the chapel first, and try if he could discover any traces of their alarming visitor; and if, after reconnoitring, all appeared safe, that Monimia should return as usual to her apartment.

Orlando then, directing her to fasten herself the study door within side, went through the chapel with a candle in his hand, which he shaded with his hat to prevent the light being seen from the windows. He looked carefully among the broken boards which had once formed two or three pews, and then went into the chancel, but saw nothing. He passed through the porch, leaving his candle behind the door on one of the benches, but nobody appeared: and by the very faint light of the first dawn, on a stormy October morning, which served only to make "the darkness visible," he could just see round the whole chapel court, and was satis-

satisfied nobody was there. Thus convinced, he returned to Monimia; assured her that the wretch, whoever he was, was gone; and that there seemed to be no danger in her returning to her apartment. He endeavoured again to persuade her that her alarm, however just, would end without any of the consequences they dreaded; made her swallow a large glass of wine; and then taking one of her hands in his, he put his other arm round her waist; and with uncertain steps himself, while through fear *her* feet almost refused to move, they proceeded slowly and lightly through the chapel; neither of them spoke; Monimia hardly breathed; when arriving about the middle of it, they were struck motionless by a sudden and loud crash, which seemed to proceed from the chancel; and a deep hollow voice pronounced the words, "Now—now."

' There was a heavy stone font in the middle of the chapel, with a sort of bench under it. Orlando, unable at once to support and defend Monimia, placed her on this bench; and imploring her to take courage, he darted forward into the chancel, from whence he was sure the voice had issued, and cried aloud, "Who is there? Speak this moment. Who are you?"

' The words re-echoed through the vaulted chancel, but no answer was returned: again, and in a yet louder voice, he repeated them, and again listened to hear if any reply was made. A slight and indistinct noise like the shutting a distant door, and a low murmur which soon died away, left every thing in profound silence; he remained however yet an instant listening, while Monimia, resting against the stone a cheek almost as cold, was petrified with excess of fear; and in the dread pause between Orlando's question and his awaiting an answer, the old banners which hung over her head, waving and rustling with the current of air, seemed to repeat the whispers of some terrific and invisible being, foretelling woe and destruction; while the same wind by which these fragments were agitated, hummed sullenly among the helmets and gauntlets, trophies of the prowess of former sir Orlandos and sir Hildebrands, which were suspended from the pillars of the chapel.

' When Orlando returned to her, he found her more dead than alive. He soothed, he supported her, and earnestly besought her to exert herself against the fear that oppressed her.

"What shall we do, Monimia?" said he. "For my own part, rather than see you suffer thus, I will take you in my hand, and declare at once to these people, whoever they are, that we cannot live apart. And should we, by such an avowal, forfeit the protection of our friends, what is there in that so very dreadful? I am young and strong, and well able to work in any way for a subsistence for us both. Tell me, Monimia, should you fear poverty, if we could but live together?"

C. R. N. AR. (VIII.) *May*, 1793.

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"No,"

"No," replied Monimia, acquiring courage from this excess of tenderness in her lover—"no, Orlando, I should be too happy to be allowed to beg with you round the world." "What then have we to fear?" whispered he. "Come, let us go and face these people, if, as their expression 'Now' seems to intimate, they are waiting for us without. In the chapel they are not, however the sound seemed to come from thence. I fear they way-lay us at the door. But if we are thus prepared against the worst that can befall us, why should we shrink now, only to be exposed a second time to alarms that seem to threaten your life, from your extreme timidity? Tell me, Monimia, have you courage to brave the discovery at once, which sooner or later must be made?"

"I *have* courage," answered she; "let us go while I am able." She arose, but could hardly stand. Orlando however led her forward, listening still every step they took. They heard nothing either in the chapel or the porch; and being now on the pavement without, they stopped and looked around them, expecting that the person or persons whose words had alarmed them would appear: but there was nobody to be seen, yet it was now light enough to discern every part of the court. "This is wonderful," said Orlando; "but since there seems to be nothing to prevent it, let me see you, my Monimia, safe to your room; and let me hope to have the comfort of knowing, that after the fatigues and terrors of such a day and night, you obtain some repose." "How can you know it, Orlando," answered she, "since it will be madness, if we escape now, to think of venturing a meeting to-morrow night?" "I would not have you venture it; but, Monimia, I have thought of a way, by which I can hear from you and write to you in the course of the day, which, under our present circumstances, must be an infinite satisfaction. As I have at all hours access to the turret, I can put a letter at your door behind your bed; and there you can deposit an answer." To this expedient Monimia readily assented. Without any alarm they passed the rest of their short walk. Monimia promised to go immediately to bed, and to endeavour to compose herself; and Orlando, having seen her secured in her turret, returned to the chapel, determined to discover, if possible, what it was that had so cruelly alarmed them.

Matters continue in this train till colonel Tracey, an old beau of sixty-five, enamoured of Orlando's sister Isabella, comes on a visit to Mr. Somerive, her father, with a determined purpose to seduce and carry her off. Finding that a youth of Orlando's spirit and high sense of honour was likely to impede his plan, he suggests to his father the impropriety of his son's consuming his time, inactively, at Rayland-hall, makes an offer of his interest, and finally procures him a commission in
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the army. Frustrated in his attempts of seduction, and becoming daily more captivated with Isabella's charms, the old colonel makes honourable proposals, and the young lady, after a faint struggle between interest and dislike, determines to take to her arms, a man old enough to have been her grandfather. Previous to the intended marriage, the colonel and Orlando go to London, where the latter is introduced to a captain Warrick, nephew to the colonel, and presumptive heir to his fortune. After some time spent in London, the colonel returns to the country with a view of celebrating his nuptials, whither Orlando, panting for another turgent interview, accompanies him. The old colonel is attacked by a severe fit of the gout which confines him to his room, and Warrick arriving to intimate orders for the immediate embarkation of Orlando's regiment for America, becomes instantly enamoured of his intended aunt, and in less than forty-eight hours procures her consent to abscond with him to Portsmouth, whither he is obliged to go to attend his duty. This ungrateful and scandalous scheme, which at once repays an uncle's former kindness with villany, and involves a virtuous family in affliction, is communicated by Warrick to the honourable and dutiful Orlando; who, instead of taking any step to counteract a plan so pregnant with mischief and immorality, contents himself with simply disapproving, and promises with inviolable secrecy to favour the escape of the lovers. Orlando embarks for America, where he experiences a variety of disastrous fortune, and returning to England, finds nothing but disappointment, misery, and distress. Mrs. Rayland, on whom his chief hopes depended, is dead—The estate of Rayland Hall, which, previous to his departure, he had every reason to expect by succession, made over to a person altogether unconnected with the late proprietor—The mansion house deserted—Monimia gone, and no intelligence to be obtained of her place of abode—His father dead—The family estate sold—His brother in prison; and his mother and sisters gone to live on a scanty subsistence in London. He sells his commission for 400*l.*—Relieves his worthless brother from gaol—Goes in quest of Mrs. Lennard, now Mrs. Roker—Meets unexpectedly with Monimia, and hurried on by the ardour of his love, and with no other visible provision than 250*l.* in defiance of prudence, duty, and impending want, marries her instantly.

Having thus briefly enumerated a few of the exceptionable parts of this drama, we now pause to ask Mrs. Smith, or any novel writer or reader, what possible benefit can accrue to society, and to youth in particular, from a perusal of scenes so repugnant to decorum and virtue? To draw characters where the follies, the passions, and the vices of mankind are finally

productive of calamity is proper painting; because, from the ill success and punishment of imprudence and criminality, an excellent moral is deduced. But is this the colouring of Mrs. Smith's pictures? No such thing. On the contrary we find, that while youthful thoughtlessness and intemperance are crowned with success, ingratitude and the most complicated villany remain unpunished. The old colonel is reconciled to Warrick, and leaves him his whole fortune.—The infamous Rokers, and their accomplice the bishop, are only obliged to refund what they had procured by fraud, and Mrs. Lennard, the grand instrument of evil to the Somerive family, and the tyrant of poor Monimia, is taken home and placed in her former station in Rayland-hall, where she is cherished and caressed by those whom she strove by the blackest arts to ruin. With regard to *character* in this novel, we find little that can be said to leave a clear and distinct image on the mind.—We sometimes think we see Philip Somerive, and his unhappy father—but the one, the authorefs has kept so much in the back ground of the piece as to be seldom visible; and the other, who unquestionably is the most respectable and amiable personage in the group, she has thought it expedient to put out of the way by making him die of a broken heart. We are afraid we can say little of *plot*, for there seems to be none but the *concealment of a will*, and still less of the *denouement*, which, in our opinion, is 'most lame and impotent.' Why did not Mrs. Lennard, when she dipped so deep in treachery, burn the real will; and what at the time of her apostacy could have been her motives for preserving that which could alone detect the infamy of the transaction?—The conclusion is wound up in such a hasty and improbable manner; and every thing is so instantaneously reversed, that it reminds us of those pantomimical entertainments where the whole scenery is changed by a stroke of harlequin's sword. We were in expectation, that, as an apology for Orlando's misplaced affection, and as an explanation of Mrs. Lennard's unaccountable harshness to Monimia, the heroine of the piece would have turned out a very different personage—but no; she still remains the obscure niece of Mrs. Lennard, and Orlando's conduct is, of course, held up as an example for all young gentlemen of family and fortune to marry any pretty servant maid they chuse.

To deny Mrs. Smith merit in other respects would be unjust. She certainly possesses in no inferior degree the power to arrest and command attention, by a happy description of circumstances and objects awful, terrific, and sublime; and discovers such fertility of imagination, as often to multiply incident on incident, even when there appears no necessity for it. The pathetic, or the tender, we do not think is Mrs. Smith's

Smith's forte; but the bold, the manly, the intrepid, and the dignified sentiments of the human breast are touched with no unskilful hand. The work is likewise, on the whole, written in an easy flowing style, and except a few *prettinesses*, such as, '*books never disturbed in their long slumber*'—'*a tear blistered the paper*'—'*iron prudery*'—'*massive dignity*'—'*infant April*,' &c. is free from that affectation and turgidity which of late have disgraced modern compositions of this kind. The letters between old Mr. Somerive and Orlando, relative to the impending duel, are elegant examples of epistolary writing.—As an additional proof of Mrs. Smith's success in description, we shall conclude this article by laying the following short extract before our readers.

"And Orlando recollecting himself, took no other notice of Monimia, who would, had she dared, have flown to him for protection: but, slightly touching his hat, he advanced to sir John, and said, "I suppose, sir, you have Mrs. Rayland's permission to shoot in these preserved grounds?"

"I always shoot, sir," answered sir John, haughtily, "in all grounds that happen to suit me, whether they are preserved or no, and take no trouble to ask leave of any body."

"Then, sir," said Orlando with quickness, "you must allow me to say that you do a very unhandsome thing."

"And I," rejoined the other, "say, whether you allow it or no, that you are a very impertinent fellow."

The blood rushed into the face of Orlando; and even the pale and terrified countenance of Monimia, who caught hold of Betty for support, did not deter him from resenting this insolence. "Who are you," cried he, seizing sir John by the collar, "that thus dare to insult me?"

"And who are you, scoundrel," answered his antagonist, endeavouring to disengage himself, "who dare to behave with such confounded impudence to a man of my consequence?"

"Curse on your consequence!" exclaimed the enraged Orlando, throwing him violently from him: "If you are a gentleman, which I doubt, give me an opportunity of telling you properly who I am."

"If I am a gentleman?" cried the other. "Am I questioned by a park-keeper? or by some dirty valet?"

Sir John, who was quite the modern man of fashion, did not much approve of the specimen Orlando had given him of athletic powers:—he liked him still less when he replied—"My name is Somerive—my usual residence at West Wolverton, or Rayland Hall. Now, sir, as you speak neither to a park-keeper nor a valet, you must tell me from whom I have received this brutal insult."

"My servant will tell you," replied he; "and, if you are likely to forget his information, you shall hear it properly from me to-morrow. In the mean time, my dear girl," added he, turning familiarly to Monimia, "let us leave this fierce Draw-canfir to watch the old lady's pheasants; and as you seem much alarmed by his ridiculous fury, let me have the pleasure of seeing you safe home."

He would then have taken the arm of the trembling Monimia within his; but she shrunk from him, and would have passed on. He still insisted, however, on being permitted to attend her home; when Orlando, quite unable to command himself, sprung forward, and, seizing the arm of Monimia, cried, "This young lady, being under the protection of Mrs. Rayland, is under mine; and I insist on her not being troubled with your impertinent familiarity. Come, madam, if you will give me leave, I will conduct you to your aunt." He then, without waiting for any farther reply, walked hastily away; while sir John, filled with rage and contempt, bade his servant follow him, and inform him that the person whom he had thus grossly affronted was sir John Berkely Belgrave, baronet, of Belgrave Park in Suffolk, brother-in-law to the earl of Glenlyon of Scotland, and member of parliament. Orlando heard this list of dignities with contemptuous coolness; and then, as he continued to walk on, bade the servant tell his master, sir John Berkely Belgrave, of Belgrave Park in Suffolk, brother-in-law to the earl of Glenlyon of Scotland, and member of parliament, that he expected to hear from him.

The whole of the story might have been comprised in *two* volumes. Were novelists a little more merciful to their readers, perhaps we Reviewers, who are obliged to read *all* they write, would be more patient. — But when we find the most ordinary and trivial occurrences in life drawn out to whole chapters, and the eternal theme of love and sentiment spun out to *thirteen hundred pages*, can it be wondered at if we sometimes yawn, and exclaim in the words of Hotspur, 'Oh! it is as tedious as a tired horse or a scolding wife?'

Remarks on the Speech of M. Dupont, made in the National Convention of France, on the Subjects of Religion and Public Education. By Hannah More. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell. 1793.

FROM the justly acquired celebrity of miss More, our expectations were considerably raised by the appearance of this pamphlet. From a pious, able, and ingenious writer, we expected something of a reply to the assertion of M. Dupont, — We expected to find the general arguments in favour of the existence and providence of God, placed in a new and striking point

point of view. We expected to see the amiable tenets and the internal evidence of the Gospel, set in opposition to the unfocial and gloomy principles of atheism.—We hoped, in a word, to find, what is much wanted, a popular treatise in favour of revealed religion, something that might instruct while it interested, something calculated to survive the political debates of the moment.

After such expectations, how mortifying was our disappointment, to meet with nothing but a trite declamation against the French revolution—A series of remarks too well-founded indeed, but which occur at almost every fashionable table, calculated not to sooth but to foment the passions, and to keep up the popular delusion which has plunged us into the calamities and the guilt of war.

While we lament that miss More, who certainly could have written better, has disappointed us in this instance, we are far from insinuating that the pamphlet before us is destitute of merit. It contains several, not only good, but liberal sentiments; and of this kind is the well-conceived eulogium on the liberty of the press.

‘ Though it is not here intended to animadvert on any political complaint which is not in some sort connected with religion; yet it is presumed it may not be thought quite foreign to the present purpose to remark, that among the reigning complaints against our civil administration, the most plausible seems to be that excited by the supposed danger of an invasion on the liberty of the press. Were this apprehension well-founded, we should indeed be threatened by one of the most grievous misfortunes that can befall a free country. It is not only a most noble privilege itself, but the guardian of all our other liberties; and, notwithstanding the abuse which has lately been made of this valuable possession, yet every man of a sound unprejudiced mind is well aware that true liberty of every kind is scarcely inferior in importance to any object for which human activity can contend. Nay, the very abuse of a good, often makes us more sensible of its value. Fair and well-proportioned freedom will ever retain all her native beauty to a judicious eye, nor will her genuine form be the less prized for our having lately contemplated the distorted features and false colouring of her caricature, as presented to us by the daubing hand of Gallic patriots.’

We cordially agree with our authorefs that those publications which have a tendency to corrupt the morals, or undermine the religion of the nation, ought not to be permitted; but perhaps prosecution ought to stop here—It is essential to the freedom and even the prosperity of a nation, that a wide field should be left open for the discussion of political questions, and

it must be allowed that this liberty has even proved of service to government itself, by placing an impediment in the way of the rash and imprudent resolutions into which the executive power might be sometimes too hastily betrayed. The following short recommendation of the excellence of religion, is pointed and seasonable.

‘ But let us, in this yet happy country, learn at least one great and important truth, from the errors of this distracted people. Their conduct has awfully illustrated a position, which is not the less sound for having been often controverted ; that no degree of wit and learning, no progress in commerce, no advances in the knowledge of nature, or in the embellishment of art, can ever thoroughly tame that savage, the natural human heart, without religion. The arts of social life may give a sweetness to the manners and language, and induce, in some degree, a love of justice, truth, and humanity ; but attainments derived from such inferior causes are no more than the semblance and the shadow of the qualities derived from pure Christianity. Varnish is an extraneous ornament, but true polish is a proof of the solidity of the body ; it depends greatly on the nature of the substance, is not superinduced by accidental causes, but in a good measure proceeding from internal soundness.’

The profits of this pamphlet are dedicated to the liberal and laudable purpose of relieving the distressed of the French emigrant clergy ; and the prefatory address to the ladies of Great Britain, is so truly elegant, pathetic, and interesting, that our readers, we trust, will, on such an occasion, excuse an extract of a more than ordinary length.

‘ The beneficent and right-minded want no arguments to be pressed upon them ; but I write to those of every description. Luxurious habits of living, which really furnish the distressed with the fairest grounds for application, are too often urged as a motive for withholding assistance, and produced as a plea for having little to spare. Let her who indulges such habits, and pleads such excuses in consequence, reflect, that by retrenching *one* costly dish from her abundant table, the superfluities of *one* expensive desert, *one* evening’s public amusement, she may furnish at least a week’s subsistence to more than one person, as liberally bred perhaps as herself, and who, in his own country, may have often tasted how much more blessed it is to give than to receive — to a minister of God, who has been long accustomed to bestow the necessaries he is now reduced to solicit.

‘ Even your young daughters, whom maternal prudence has not yet furnished with the means of bestowing, may be cheaply taught the first rudiments of charity, together with an important lesson of œconomy : they may be taught to sacrifice a feather, a set of ribbons,

bons, an expensive ornament, an idle diversion. And if they are thus instructed, that there is no true charity without self-denial, they will *gain* more than they are called upon to *give*: for the suppression of one luxury for a charitable purpose, is the exercise of two virtues, and this without any pecuniary expence.

‘ Let the sick and afflicted remember how dreadful it must be, to be exposed to sufferings, without one of the alleviations which mitigate *their* affliction. How dreadful it is to be without comforts, without necessaries, without a home,—*without a country!* While the gay and prosperous would do well to recollect, how suddenly and terribly those for whom we plead, were, by the surprising vicissitudes of life, thrown from equal heights of gaiety and prosperity. And let those who have husbands, fathers, sons, brothers, or friends, reflect on the uncertainties of war, and the revolution of human affairs. It is only by imagining the possibility of those who are dear to us being placed in the same calamitous circumstances, that we can obtain an adequate feeling of the woes we are called upon to commiserate.

‘ In a distress so wide and comprehensive, many are prevented from giving by that common excuse—“ That it is but a drop of water in the ocean.” But let them reflect, that if all the individual drops were withheld, there would be no ocean at all; and the inability to give much ought not, on any occasion, to be converted into an excuse for giving nothing. Even moderate circumstances need not plead an exemption. The industrious tradesman will not, even in a political view, be eventually a loser by his small contribution. The money raised is neither carried out of our country, nor dissipated in luxuries, but returns again to the community; to our shops and to our markets, to procure the bare necessities of life.

‘ Some have objected to the difference of *religion* of those for whom we solicit. Such an objection hardly deserves a serious answer. Surely if the superstitious Tartar hopes to become possessed of the courage and talents of the enemy he slays, the Christian is not afraid of catching, or of propagating the error of the sufferer he relieves.—Christian charity is of no party. We plead not for their faith, but for their wants. And let the more scrupulous, who look for desert as well as distress in the objects of their bounty, bear in mind, that if these men could have sacrificed their conscience to their convenience, they had not now been in this country. Let us shew them the purity of *our* religion, by the beneficence of our actions.

‘ If you will permit me to press upon you such high motives, (and it were to be wished that in every action we were to be influenced by the highest,) perhaps no act of bounty to which you may be called out, can ever come so immediately under that solemn and affecting description, which will be recorded in the great day of account,—*I was a stranger, and ye took me in.*’—

An Essay on the Scurvy: shewing effectual and practicable Means for its Prevention at Sea. With some Observations on Fevers, and Proposals for the more effectual Preservation of the Health of Seamen. By. Frederic Thomson, a Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1790.

IT is difficult to conceive what can have been the author's motive for this publication, since its production cannot add an iota to the knowledge already promulgated on the subject of the sea scurvy. Notwithstanding we are told in the Preface of his 'having no desire to become an author,' we are unwilling to suppose his object any thing less commendable than the love of literary fame, but it must be confessed he has by no means obtained that end in the instance before us, since all that is good in the work and even a number of his quotations, are collected from Dr. Lind, who very judiciously and appositely cited them in historical succession in his valuable Treatise on the same subject.

In seeking after what is most novel for the information of our readers, we have fixed on the following observations on the antiscorbutic effects of hops, which the author advises to be infused in treacle-beer and employed as a beverage in long voyages.

'The hop plant in common use, of which I mean to treat, is cultivated in plantations, and is so well known that it is unnecessary to describe it. Suffice it then to say, that the scaly heads of the plant, or the parts which are commonly used, have an agreeable flavour, and are possessed of an aromatic, subtile, austere, *discutient*, bitter; not ungrateful to the palate. Being replete with aromatic, subtile, active qualities, they stimulate the solids; from their austerity they act as a powerful tonic, and from their discutient quality they prove resolvent and diuretic.

'A combination of these properties heightened by fermentation fits them for attenuating viscid chyle; correcting the morbid quality of the bile in scorbutics; preventing or removing obstructions in the glands or capillaries; bracing and invigorating the solids, and promoting the regular secretions and evacuations. Hence would hops appear justly entitled to a preference, as an antiscorbutic, to almost any substance we are acquainted with; and what enhances this consideration is, that they are very convenient for exportation; easily preserved in all climates; and so little liable to damage, that it is only necessary to keep them dry.

'Another favourable circumstance is, that an extract is easily prepared from hops, retaining almost all their qualities; which will keep for years, and will require but little room for stowage; there

therefore the extract may be thought most convenient for use at sea.

‘ Hops give out their virtue to spirit by maceration without heat, and to water by warm infusion—but in making hop-beer I prefer boiling the hops slowly for some time, with a cover made to fit the copper exactly, but so as to pass into the copper, to lay on the hops, and to press them down into the water. The usual lid or cover should likewise be kept almost close, so that the evaporation of the volatile parts may be diminished as much as possible, without danger of bursting the copper. By these means the water will act more powerfully in extracting the virtues of the hops, the liquor will be more fully impregnated with their salutary qualities; and, as hops contain a very considerable proportion of essential oil, (a great part of which is lost in the common mode of brewing) I think, by boiling them in the manner just mentioned, a great part of the oil may be retained, and the decoction will be more saturated with it than in the common way.

‘ The copper heads lately adopted by many of the brewers answer this purpose extremely well, as they prevent the oil, &c. flying off; and when these can be used, they are certainly preferable to any other method. There can be no objection to their use in the navy.

‘ The essential oil of hops may be obtained with more ease and certainty by *compression* than by distillation; but it has been found by experiment, that, for the preservation of beer, the austere, as well as the mild and unctuous parts of the hops are absolutely necessary; and that beer cannot have the full benefit of the hops in any other way than by coction. By the manner of boiling hops as mentioned above, I imagine that the spirituous and volatile parts of them are so entangled and blended with their oil, and mucilage, that they are in a great measure prevented escaping.’

Our author's ingenious mode of preventing the *escape of the essential oil* in the foregoing process, cannot have escaped the chemical reader's observation, any more than the truly Hibernian mode of obtaining *essential oil* by *expression*. We shall conclude this article with a passage equally puzzling to medical readers of the modern school. The author, treating of the proximate causes of scurvy, says,

‘ The above changes usually take place without fever; but, should a feverish access now supervene, the salts and oils not being duly incorporated, will be heated and exalted, and will greatly contribute to acrimony and dissolution.’

The History and Antiquities of the County of Somerset, collected from authentic Records, and an actual Survey made by the late Mr. Edmund Rack. Adorned with a Map of the County, and Engravings of Roman and other Reliques, Town-Seals, Baths, Churches, and Gentleman's Seats. By the Rev. John Collinson, F. A. S. 3 Vols. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1791.

THE history of a county is, in miniature, the history of a kingdom. Inconsiderable as it appears in the map, surrounded by a variety of other provinces, no sooner is it selected by the topographer, and made the subject of distinct consideration, than its limits and contents become enlarged and multiplied. Many scenes and objects which, through the minuteness of the scale, were either unperceived or invisible, are now plainly protruded to the sight, and seem to possess their peculiar importance. The little spot which before was confused in the aggregate, being magnified by the microscopic power of the observer, expands itself into an ample chart; and is found to boast its *aborigines*, its ancient monuments, laws, and customs, its eminent characters, and remarkable events; together with its appropriate blessings and curiosities of nature, in as interesting a degree as the most extensive regions.

Exclusively of the entertainment resulting from these local accounts, their advantages are numerous, with respect to the materials which they furnish towards the general history of the country.

* These are the sources from which a great part of the most authentic information belonging to the latter may be drawn, and by which it may in future ages be in a great measure confirmed or corrected. They may not only serve to ascertain property, preserve the genealogies of families, record illustrious actions, uphold the memory of great characters, and retrace and bring to view the peculiar modes of life, laws and customs of past ages; but also contribute to perpetuate our happy constitution *itself*. The historic page, reciting local claims and privileges, has often proved a considerable barrier against the violence of despotism on the one hand, and the inconsiderate rage of popular fury on the other.

* Nor, lastly, is the communication of intelligence respecting the natural productions of any particular territory a matter of the smallest moment. There is scarcely any district so defective as not to furnish some subject of entertainment and improvement; and Somersetshire seems to have its share of the wonderful works of providence. By an intuition of these, science is delightfully improved; the mind exults in pursuing the Deity through all his operations, and dispensing different blessings to different regions.*

The

The preliminary information to be expected in the history of a county, is its latitude and longitude. These, however, are wholly omitted; and we learn only that 'Somersetshire' (or, more properly, *Somerset*, the adjunct *shire* being synonymous with *county*)—

• —Is a maritime county in the south-west part of England, having the Bristol Channel on the west; Gloucestershire, and the city and county of Bristol on the north; Wiltshire on the east; Dorsetshire on the south-east; and Devonshire on the south and south-west.

• Its form is oblong, being in length from north-east to south-west upwards of eighty miles, in breadth from east to west between thirty and forty, and in circumference two hundred.'

A judicious description follows of its coast, rivers, (of which there are ten) hills, moors, vegetable, animal, and mineral productions, springs, and rare plants. This county once possessed five forests, three chaces, and several vineyards; of which last, two were at Bath and Glastonbury.

• In vegetable and animal productions, Somersetshire is by no means deficient; the hills, plains, vallies, rivers, and seas, abound with commodities useful to mankind, and adequate to the necessary wants of life. The vallies, whether distributed into meads, pasture, or tillage, are in general very rich, and many of the hills, a few years since unacquainted with the plough, are now, by the improvements in husbandry, brought to such a state of cultivation as to produce large crops of grain. Hemp, flax, teazels, and woad, are cultivated in considerable quantities. The plains are remarkable for their luxuriant herbage, particularly the moors, on which are fattened great numbers of nearly the largest cattle in England. The cheese made in this county is esteemed remarkably fine, and in distant parts is produced as one of the dainties of the table. The sheep are generally of the smaller kind; the Mendip mutton is well known for its peculiar sweetness.

• The hills produce various sorts of valuable ore; in those of Mendip are dug immense quantities of lead and lapis-calaminaris, and some copper: the Quantock-hills also produce lead and copper; the Broadfield-downs, and other wilds, have their mines of calamine; and iron-ore has been found, though little worked, in various parts of the county; on the rocks near Porlock, silver in small quantities is discoverable. The coal-mines in the northern part, at Clutton, High Littleton, Midsummer Norton, Timbury, Paulton, Bedminster, Ashton, Nailsea, Clapton, and other places, are valuable treasures to the neighbourhood, and supply great part of the cities of Bath and Bristol with most excellent fuel. The former city has in great measure been raised by the fine free-

stone

stone of its neighbouring quarries. The blue Kenton stone is admirable for paving. The rocks on the coast contain marble, alabaster, and talc; and those in the inland parts are generally composed of limestone, and abound with pyrites, spar, lava, and curious petrifications. On Mendip are found the green foliaceous talc, with small spangles, brown elasmis, brown pellucid selenitæ, bright oligædra, dull white arthredium, with a variety of spars and crystals. Peculiar also to these hills is the hard yellow undulated secomia, which is found in large quantities, lying mostly deep. Several other varieties of the secomia are also to be met with here, and in many other parts of the county. The other natural productions of Mendip are the brown gaiophragmium with snow-white earthy partitions, the pale yellow septaria with a rust-coloured nucleus, hard heteropyra with brown and purplish crusts, oblong geodes with a single blackish crust, thick shelled enhidri, friable pale red lithozugium with white veins and red nodules, blue crystalline petridium, silver, gold colour and white marcasites. In some of the perpendicular fissures of the strata of stone is found that beautiful species of the saburra, *saburra faxea nivea tenuior*, or fine snow-white stony grit. The dull white coarse stony grit is more common, and is found in many parts of the county, particularly in the stone quarries near Bath. Of ochres there are various species found in these parts, such as, the hard heavy pale yellow ochre at Ashwick, near the road from Bath to Shepton Mallet, lying in a stratum about eighteen feet deep; the right friable gold-coloured ochre, which is frequently discovered hanging to the sides of old mines; and the heavy friable yellow ochre, which is found in many parts of the county. At Chew and Winford is found that species of red ochre commonly called ruddle, so well known for its use in marking sheep; of this there are three different sorts, the first of which is that in general use for the above purpose; the second is much harder, makes an indifferent kind of paint, and is frequently substituted by druggists for bole-armoniac; the third is peculiar to a very confined space on the top of Windford hill, and differs materially from either of the other kinds in the brightness of its colour, the evenness and smoothness of its texture, in its ponderosity, its not crumbling between the fingers, and in being indissoluble in water. It is found at about the distance of six fathoms from the surface of the ground, in a stratum of four feet, lying on a bed of black marle, beneath strata of soft reddish earth, clay, rock, and loam. It affords a most excellent and splendid colour, and is in every respect equal to that ochrous earth which is dearly imported under the denomination of *Terra Persica*.

The mineral springs, besides those at Bath, are, at Ashill, Alford, Horwood near Wincaunton, Horton, Dillington, Goat-hill,

hill, Yeovil, and Queen's Camel. At East Chinnock is a salt spring.

‘ The rivers of this county furnish trout, salmon, roach, dace, perch, eels, pike, gudgeon, carp, and tench; and on the sea-coast we meet with tublin, flounders, sandabs, hakes, pipers, shrimps, prawns, crabs, muscles, soles, herrings, plaice, porpoises, skaits, and star-fish.

‘ The most remarkable birds are, the heath-hen, wild-duck, curlew, rail, gull, and wheatear.

‘ In Exmoor and other lower parts of the county are abundance of red deer.

‘ On the hills and desert wastes we find the dwarf juniper, the cranberry, and the whortleberry; the last by the natives is called hurts, and produces a pleasing fruit, growing singly like gooseberries, on little plants from a foot to eighteen inches in height; the leaves are ovated, and of a pale green, growing alternately on the branches. On the rocks upon the coast are great quantities of laver, lichen marinus, or sea-bread; in the moors, once deluged by the sea, grows the gale, or candleberry myrtle.’

To this physical detail, succeeds an alphabetical list of an hundred and thirteen *more rare plants*.

‘ The district now called Somersetshire was in ancient times inhabited by the Belgæ, a brave Gaulish people but of Celtic origin, who migrated hither out of Gaul, A. M. 3650, three hundred and thirteen years before the birth of Christ, and repelled the Britons, the aboriginal inhabitants of the country, whose Carnedd's still crown some of our highest mountains, to other parts of the island. The possessions of this people extended over a very large tract of country, including Somersetshire, Dorsetshire, Devonshire, part of Cornwall, Wiltshire, Hampshire, Sussex, and part of Middlesex; in all which they established colonies, and in the waste marshy grounds practised those arts of industry to which they had been habituated in Gaul, and in which they instructed those Britons who chose to intermix in their society. About two hundred and fifty years after their settlement in these parts, Divitiacus, king of the Sueffones, or Soissons, and according to Cæsar the most powerful prince in Gaul, *minded himself* to bring over into Britain a considerable army of the continental Belgæ, and by the addition of his forces to enable the former emigrators to extend the line of their possessions. The expelled Britons had doubtless made frequent attempts to regain their native seats, and by inroads to perplex the innovating barbarians. Upon the arrival of this prince, a plan of compromise and treaty seems to have been suggested, and a line drawn to define the boundaries of either people. This was effected by throwing up a large and deep fosse or dike, called, from the circumstance of its division, Wanfdike, which

which to this day exists in many places in perfect preservation, one of the greatest curiosities in antiquity. It commences at Andover in Hampshire, and thence passes nearly in a straight direction to Great Bedwin within the confines of Wilts, near which, upon its track, have been discovered celts and instruments of war. It then crosses the great forest Savarnack and the wild Marlborough-downs, where it appears in its pristine state, exceedingly deep, and flanked by a very lofty mound, after the manner of the elevated rampire of a castle, attracting by its singular appearance the attention of the curious traveller. Quitting the downs, it visits Calton, Edington, and Spey-park, crosses the river Avon near Bennacre, and again, after being lost in the tilled fields, meets with the same meandering river at Bath-Hampton, where it enters the north-west portion of the Belgic territories. Its course is then continued over Claverton-down to Prior-park, Englishcombe, Stanton-Prior, Publow, Norton, Rong-Ashton, and terminates in the Severn sea, near the ancient port of Portishead, forming a line of upwards of eighty miles in length, in more than three parts of which it is still visible.

• Hence it will be seen how far the territories of the ancient Belgæ extended towards the north, and that even some parts of this county, much of Wiltshire, and the whole of Gloucestershire, were excluded out of their dominions. The chief cities which they had were Ivelchester, Bath, and Winchester, two of which are within the limits of our county, and prove in some measure that this was as it were the metropolitan seat of their empire.

• A long succession of savage and tumultuous contentions intervened betwixt this period and the arrival of the Roman arms in the Belgic states of Britain. This was about the year of Christ 40; and nine years after, two trophies were erected by the emperor Claudius, in consequence of his having utterly annihilated the Cangi, a posthumous clan of those Belgæ who last migrated into this country with the Suesonian king.

• During the stay of the Romans in this region, they exerted their national activity in building themselves towns, throwing up roads from station to station, and in fabricating camps as occasional places of security. Their cities were Aqua Solis, or Bath, and Iscalis, or Ivelchester; and those places whose ancient names are not transmitted to the present day, but are demonstrated to have been Roman by the foundations of their walls, and the discovery of unquestionable reliques of Romanity, were, Camalet, Hamden, Wellow, Coker, Chilcompton, Conquest, Wiveliscombe, Bath-Ford, Warley, Sreet, Long-Ashton, Postlebury, South-Petherton, Watergore, Wigborough, Yeovil, Putsham, Kilton, Stogumber, Edington, Englishcombe, &c. Their principal road was the Fosse, extending in a south-west direction from Bath to Perry-street, on the borders of Devonshire. Another road

ran nearly parallel to it from the forest of Exmoor through Taunton, Bridgwater, and Axbridge, to Portishead on the Bristol Channel, where it intersected Wansdike, and whence there was a trajectus to the city of Isca-Silurum, now called Caerleon, in the county of Monmouth. A vicinal way extends from the Foſſe through Stoke-under-Hamden. Their camps were, Camalet, Meakſnol, Bowditch, Maſbury, Doleberry, Worleberry, Blacker's-hill, Burwalls, Stokeleigh, Cadbury, Tedbury, Douſeborough, Modbury, Godſhill, Cow-caſtle, Trendle-caſtle, Turk's-caſtle, Brompton-Bury-caſtle, Hawkridge-caſtle, Mounceaur-caſtle, Newborough, Neroche, Stanton-Bury, &c.

The Romans quitted this country between A. D. 440 and 444; and the Saxons inſidiously ſupplying their ſtations, and ſubverting the general œconomy of the country, impoſed upon this province the new name of *Sumeþpreþercype*, or *Somerſetſhire*, either from Somerton, the chief town at that particular period therein, or in regard that they found this the ſeat of ſummer, compared with the frigid ſituations which they had ſo lately abandoned. In their diviſion of this kingdom into petty ſtates, in effecting which much blood was ſhed to obtain little territory, it conſtituted part of the kingdom of Weſſex, or the Weſt-Saxons.

In the reign of king Ina, a prince in prudence and moderation much unlike the majority of thoſe who ſwayed the Saxonian ſceptre either before or after him, Chriſtianity, notwithſtanding the diſorders and confuſions which neceſſarily attend the emulous contentions of barbarian powers, began to dawn, and to become the national religion of Britain. And although the iſle of Avalon can never juſtly boaſt of the honour of that holy viſit which monks, bewildered by error and ſuperſtition, have even in the moſt diſtant lands beſtowed upon it, yet it muſt at leaſt be granted the felicity of having acquired the rudiments of the Chriſtian religion, as ſoon, if not much ſooner than moſt other parts of Britain. The monastery of Glaſtonbury, the biſhoprick of Wells, were then founded, and other works of piety were inſtituted.

The reign of good king Alfred, who was the fifth in ſucceſſion to Egbert the reducer of the Saxon heptarchy into one ſole dominion, was marked with many troubles. The Danes, a furious tribe ſprung from the frozen boſom of the north, had in his time nearly overrun the whole face of Britain, and deſolated almoſt every province. Somerſet, Wilts, and Hants, were the only diſtricts to which they had not conveyed the terror of their arms. At length, A. D. 878, they entered theſe confines, and, after many encounters in which the efforts of placid expiring virtue gave way to the increaſing violence of ſavage cruelty, Alfred was conſtrained to ſeek an humble aſylum in the fens of Athelney, and await the day wherein providence ſhould place him peaceably

on his legal throne. Nor was it far distant. At Edington he defeated the combined body of the Danes, and retiring to his court at Aller, where he caused Guthrun, the pagan king, to receive the rite of baptism, in gratitude to God, laid the foundation of a noble monastery to the honour of St. Saviour and St. Peter the apostle, at Athelney, the seat of his pristine solitary retirement.

Passing over the 'prolix series of invasions, battles, and innovations,' that prevailed in England during many subsequent ages, Mr. Collinson proceeds to the æra of the Norman conquest, Here we are presented with a list of the religious foundations, and of those persons who attended the Conqueror in his expedition, whom he enriched with the division of his plunder.

'The feudal system being, in its improved state, introduced into this country by the Normans, the lands, which heretofore had been possessed by thanes and vassals of the Saxon court, were now condensed into large baronies, each comprising a great number of estates, held under the respective lords, as they themselves held under the crown, by military service. On the principal estate or head of each barony, castles were erected, and the several owners were by their tenure obliged to support the outrages of ambition and the madness of crusades.'

An enumeration is given of the principle barons in this county, in the time of Henry II. and the most eminent possessors of its land in the reign of Edward I. 'a reign distinguished by many and various features of provincial popularity;' of the county members from the year 1298, to 1790; of the sheriffs from 1154, to 1791; of the lords, knights, esquires, and gentlemen, resident in the county, during the reign of Henry VII.; of the magistrates named in the commission of the peace, issued in 1787, together with those added by subsequent seals; of the earls and dukes of Somerset; and of 'Les Chivaliers & Hommes du Maek,' (in the counties of Dorset and Somerset.) 'L'Ann. xvii. du Roy Edward le Primer.'

'In this county was shed the first blood in the Revolution of 1688, and the last in the insurrection of the duke of Monmouth, which terminated by his total defeat in Sedgmoor, July 6, 1685. To shew that the severities exercised upon the duke's unhappy and deluded followers have not been exaggerated, I shall produce the following document:

'Somersetshire. { Edward Hobbes, esq; sherreife of y^e countie
aforesaid, to the con^{bles} and other his Maties
officers of the cittie and burrough of Bath, greeting: whereas I
have rec^d a warr^t under the hand and seale of the right hon^{ble} the
lord

lord Jeffreys for the executing of several rebells within yo^r said cittie, these are therefore to will and require yo^w immediately on sight hereof to erect a gallows in the most publike place of yo^r said cittie to hang the said trayto^{rs} on, and that yo^w provide halters to hang them with, a sufficient number of faggotts to burne the bowells of fower traytors, and a furnace or cauldron to boyle their heads and quarters, and salt to boyle therewith, halfe a bushell to each trayto^r, and tarr y^m with, and a sufficient number of speares and poles to fix and place their heads and quarters: and that yo^w warne the owners of fower oxen to be ready with a dray and wayne and the said fower oxen at the time hereafter mencioned for execusion, and yo^w yo^rselves togeather with a guard of fortie able men att the least to be present on Wednesday morning next by eight of the clock, to be aiding and assisting to me, or my deputie, to see the said rebells executed. Given under my seal of office this 16th day of November, A^o 1^o Jacobi secundi 1685.

EDWARD HORBES, Vic.

‘ Yo^w are alsoe to provide an axe and a cleaver
for the quartering the said rebells.’

‘ The total tax for Danegeld in this county paid into the king’s treasury at Winchester, in the time of king William the Conqueror, was five hundred and nine pounds.

‘ The number of inhabitants that paid to the subsidy of 51 Edward III. was fifty-four thousand six hundred and three.

‘ The number of houses which paid chimney-money in this county in 1685, was forty-four thousand six hundred and eighty-six.’

Somersetshire contains forty hundreds, seven liberties, two cities, seven boroughs, twenty-nine market-towns, one bishopric, three arch-deaconries, thirteen deaneries, and four-hundred and eighty-two parishes.

The Introduction is concluded with the names of those warriors, nobles, and ecclesiastic bodies, by whom lands were holden in this county, when the grand survey of the kingdom was made at the Conquest, with a description of their claims, and with an index to the book of Doomsday, (relative to Somersetshire) from which these memorials are extracted.

(To be continued.)

Topsy Turvy: with Anecdotes and Observations illustrative of leading Characters in the present Government of France. By the Editor of Salmagundi. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Anderson. 1793.

IN every violent agitation of a nation, the most unexpected reverses of fortune may be observed. The great change places with the little; the rich with the poor; the servant with his master. Those who are conversant with the history of the civil wars of our own country, must recollect changes of this kind almost as extraordinary as those which mark the present annals of France, and an equal number of persons raised from the lowest offices of society to the seat of empire itself. It is a very remarkable fact, however, that such men seldom can retain authority long. Their abilities and enterprize push them on to fortune, but they want that steadiness of conduct which is requisite to keep their station; they have better talents for effecting alterations than for preserving public or private advantages inviolate. In the extraordinary convulsion of our own country, to which we refer, of the numbers who from obscure situations made good their progress to wealth and consequence, how few retained either that wealth or consequence beyond the period of the Restoration? and whatever turn the affairs of France may hereafter take, we do not believe that Mess. Robespierre, Marat, Danton, &c. &c. will long retain their present importance.—Pétion, Brissot, &c. are already sunk into contempt, and almost into oblivion.

In the mean time, the witty and ingenious author of *Salmagundi* has taken advantage of the *temporary* elevation of the present great men of France, to furnish the public with an excellent laugh. It is of no consequence whether the anecdotes on which it is founded be fact or legend—it is only necessary to poetry that the fiction be believed, whatever it is. Making this proper and necessary allowance, *Topsy Turvy* cannot be read without considerable entertainment; and it must even contract the features of the stern republican himself into an occasional smile.

“ Old England is ill at her ease,
She a surfeit has got I can tell ye;
And the cause of Old England’s disease
Is the pudding and beef in her belly:
To the French for relief she applies,
And their *politic doctors* assure her
That they know where her malady lies,
And their *grand panacea* shall cure her.

“ Ah!

“ Ah ! what panacée so grand
 “ Can my *old constitution* repair ?”
 Why, dame ! on your head you must stand,
 And kick up your heels in the air :
 Then your health will be equal and good,
 Nothing else can from ruin preserve ye:
 For *equality well understood*,
 Means to turn all the world topsy-turvy.

Our counsel you never can say 'tis
 Like that of your medical elves,
 Since you find that we offer you gratis
 The prescription we follow ourselves :
 It's *blest operation* you 've seen,
 So 'tis plain that it never miscarries ;
 And you long in the habit have been
 Of adopting the fashions of Paris.

Behold our republican state
 To perfection advancing apace ;
 Ever since, where the head stood of late,
 We 've erected *the tail* in it's place !
 All distinctions we nobly despise,
 Yet who views our *convention* must own us
 A groupe who all merits comprize,
 And each member “ Rex et Sutor bonus.”

There's Pethion first on the lists
 Of levellers stands with good reason :
 He can shew you that *wisdom* consists
 In burglary, outrage and treason ;
 His logick will make it out plain
 That allegiance and duty a farce is ;
 And *dignity* none can retain
 But rogues without rags to their ———.

“ In committing to Danton * the seals
 We have shewn ourselves wiser than you are ;
 For, whenever the state 's out at heels,
 We 've a *farrier* provided to shoe her :

* M. Danton was the son of a butcher ; he procured the protection of the late princess de Lamballe, by marrying a relation of the maid of one of her femmes de chambre. By the interest of the princess he was appointed *farrier* to the count d'Artois' stud ; he practised also as a doctor, but was so unsuccessful that the count constantly threatened any of his servants who displeased him with the attendance of Danton. He was one of the principal instigators of the horrid massacre committed on his former benefactress, and is now the minister of justice.

He was nurs'd in the shambles, 'tis known,
And now practises slaughter afresh,
To prove "What is bred in the bone
"Will never be out of the flesh."

* Marat *, whom all ruffians applaud,
Will to slaughter or robbery lead 'em ;
This *tergiverse champion of fraud*
Shall extend the dominion of freedom :
Tho' our credit with (Cambon's good care)
As threadbare is worn as our coats,
Tho' with famine we groan, and despair,
Marat can soon *alter our notes.*

* Atheistic Dupont for his pains
With honour 'tis fit we should mention ;
This globe of the world, he maintains,
Made itself, *like our Gallic convention* :
So, to prove ourselves creatures of chance,
We determine (and none shall gainsay us)
By disorgazination of France
To establish the empire of Chaos.'

* Thus you see in how striking a light
True merit we strive to exhibit,
When our senators sage we invite
From the *gallies*, the *forge*, and the *gibbet* :
And of equal desert we can boast
Legislators, some hundreds or more,
Who with reason, you'll own, rule the *roast*,
'They were, half of 'em, *turnspits* before.'

* Even now is your church undermin'd
With Priestley's *polemical nitre*.
Which exploded, you'll presently find
The *red night-cap* take place of the mitre,
A sure as his regimen works,
From old orthodox leaven 'twill purge ye ;
And of Hebrews, Dissenters, and Turks,
Make right apostolical clergy.

* * M. Marat, who makes so conspicuous a figure in the annals of anarchy, at the time when he was accused of being an accomplice in the forgeries of the billets d'ecompte, or notes of the bank of discount, established by M. Neckar, bore the name of *Champion* ; he judged it expedient, however, on this occasion, to *turn his back* upon his name and country, and take refuge in England.'

Strike

Strike the flint of his heart on the steel
 Of freedom; lawn sleeves be the tinder,
 Well brimstone your match with his zeal,
 And again make St. Paul's a huge cinder:
 Rare news for the shade of good Price * !
 With joy he will sing like a thrush:
 So let Perigord post with advice,
 To exhilarate *freedom's apostle*.'
 —————

' For instruction repair to Paine's school,
 And observe what a picture he 'll draw,
 Of a brother of Mahomet's mule,
 Call'd, " The church as establish'd by law ;"
 By the Hierarchy 'got on the state
 That with fishes and loaves loads his crupper,
 While sectaries squint at the bait,
 And get nothing but *kicks* for their supper.'
 —————

' What ! shall prelates or nobles forsooth,
 In fine cloaths shew their insolent riches,
 And basely oppose naked truth
 By *philosophers* taught *without breeches* !
 No—let us of raiment bereave
 All aristocratical fots,
 For our ancestors Adam and Eve
 Were, at first, like ourselves, *sans culottes*.
 But, no longer in innocence dress'd,
 When they courted the figleaf's protection
 And green breeches put on, 'tis confess'd
 They were fall'n from their pristine perfection ;
 Then survey us so dauntless and bare,
 Nor dispute the perfection we claim,
 Who rival that primitive pair,
Unincumbered with breeches or shame.'
 —————

We think the *forte* of our author is ridicule; and, indeed, in this particular line, we have not met with any thing superior to his productions, since the time of our old acquaintance the author of the heroic epistle to sir W. Chambers.

* How ought we then to be affected, who firmly believe that, in so short a space of time, (i. e. about fourteen or twenty years agreeably to a previous accurate calculation), we may see our deceased friend again, and be able to tell him, what he will be as eager to learn, how those things, about which he most interested himself, went on after his death; and such is the prospect now opening before us, respecting the enlargement of civil and religious liberty, that the longest liver will have the *best news* to carry him.

Priestley's Sermon on the Death of Dr. Price, p. 8.

*Sermons on different Subjects. By J. Hewlett. Vol. II. 8vo.
6s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1791.*

WE owe many apologies to our ingenious author for having so long omitted to notice the present volume. In the complex business of a Review, articles are necessarily overlooked or mislaid; and though we have no reason to accuse our collector of remissness, yet the chance that an advertisement may escape his observation is so great, that though it is not our intention to be in arrears with the public, it is next to impossible in all cases to avoid it.

The expectations of those readers who have attended to our review of Mr. Hewlett's former volume, would naturally be excited by the appearance of a second; and many of them have doubtless anticipated our commendations. The author has certainly not disgraced his former production by the present; which, indeed, we are inclined to believe will be found rather superior on the whole. The subjects of the Sermons are selected with great judgment, and the style is interesting, pathetic, and harmonious. To enable our readers, however, fairly to judge for themselves, we shall first present them with a short account of the contents of the volume, and afterwards with such extracts as will afford the most impartial specimen of the execution.

Ser. I. On a doubtful Mind. The principal object of this Discourse is to shew how a doubtful, wavering state of mind, obstructs our duty and undermines our happiness. It concludes by pointing out the means of escaping its dangers and vexations.

Ser. II. and III. On the relative Duties of the Young and the Aged.

Ser. IV. On the interesting Subject of Recognition in a future State. The reasons that render it probable we shall recognise each other hereafter, are deduced principally from the general tenor of Scripture language, the soul's consciousness, and the body's identity. The practical improvements on this subject are highly important.

Ser. V. On the Union of Godliness with Contentment. In this Discourse Mr. Hewlett accurately discriminates between virtuous contentment, and that indolence of mind, which arises from satiety of enjoyment, or mere apathy.

Ser. VI. Is an admirable Discourse on the Duty of Forbearance.

Ser. VII. Religion considered as the Principle of true Fortitude.

Ser.

Ser. VIII. On the Yoke of Christ; in which the restraints of Christianity are considered as easy, when compared with Judaism and idolatry; and equally necessary to our duty and rational enjoyments.

Ser. IX. On Superstition.

Ser. X. On Pride; its natural tendency to degradation and misery fully illustrated.

Ser. XI. On Beneficence; the duty of discrimination enforced, with necessary rules and cautions for rendering our beneficence effectual.

Ser. XII. On the Character and Conduct of Zaccheus.

Ser. XIII. Godly Sorrow, and the Sorrow of the World contrasted.

Ser. XIV. On the Character and Conduct of St. Peter.

Ser. XV. The Duty of examining into our secret Faults recommended.

Ser. XVI. The Depravity of Idleness; and its pernicious Effects fully stated.

Ser. XVII. and XVIII. The probable Causes of Infidelity considered, and the Insufficiency of Deism, as affording religious Principles of Conduct, insisted on.

Ser. XIX. On the Duty of praising God.

Ser. XX. On the Character and Conduct of Pontius Pilate.

Ser. XXI. Sobriety recommended, in our Pleasures, our worldly Pursuits, and more particularly in the Indulgence of our Passions.

The first Sermon is a very masterly production.—How far the following extract will suffice to give the reader an adequate idea of its merits, we will not presume to determine.

‘ But doubtfulness of mind, as we have hitherto considered it, might proceed from causes which, we hope, are venial; it might arise from casual negligence, and be increased by natural infirmities. It might spring up in the season of calamity, before the soul is acquainted with its own powers, or formed to virtue by the needful discipline of life. It will always surprise those whom adversity has never forced to think, and who would catch at the promiscuous enjoyments of passion, without relinquishing their sense of duty.

‘ But it often proceeds from a more depraved source. There are many who will encourage this evil habit, from the most selfish and corrupt motives. The votary of pleasure and the man of the world cherish it, as a principle of comfort and of ease. They experience none of the distresses which attend the conflicts of an ingenuous mind. Their view is gratification. They wish not to have any struggles with reason, or with conscience; but to hang

as loose from all obligation as possible. By doubting, therefore, the truth of religion, the propriety of her restraints, and the sanction of her laws, they form a very convenient system of conduct for themselves, equally adapted, as the predominate passion takes place, for carrying on the schemes of licentious pleasure, or prosecuting the plans of worldly advantage. Mention to the man of a doubtful mind duties which he neglects to practise, he can tell you of the prejudices of education; the different manners of different times and countries; the endless diversity of the human character; and the uncertainty of real good, as it regards beings who widely differ from each other in opinion, in the strength and tendency of their passions, in their original constitutions, and the natural powers of their mind. Hint to him the necessity of extending his enquiries, and improving his mind with useful knowledge, he will attempt to excuse his indolence, and yet foster his vanity, by asserting, perhaps, that the wisest of philosophers affirmed of himself, "All that I know for certain is, " that I know nothing."

'There is, indeed, scarcely a duty of life which a wicked man might not, by this universal expedient of a doubtful mind, calmly and systematically transgress. In vain you might prove the existence, and enlarge on the perfections of the Deity, the benefits of revelation, and the reasonableness of imitating, what we cannot but adore; in vain you might preach the immortality of the soul, the necessity of a future judgment, and enforce the whole duty of man by urging the heavenly example of a Saviour; all these illustrious truths will have no influence on his conduct, who is not prepared to take any decided part in the grand drama of human life; but floats at large down the stream of time, and wishes not to receive any impulse but from the gratification of the present moment.'

In selecting the following passage we have principally had regard to the instruction of the younger part of our readers.

'No society, therefore, can be more beneficial to the young, than an occasional intercourse with those, whom length of days hath taught wisdom, and whose comforts are derived chiefly from reason and reflection, instead of appetite and passion. Were there, indeed, no other motives to enforce it, the pleasure arising from variety would be sufficient. Unvaried gratification soon becomes tiresome and insipid; if, therefore, we wish to cultivate true happiness, we must diversify even the rational enjoyments of life. None but the morose would debar youth from pleasure, provided it be neither vicious nor degrading; but to retire from the scenes of festivity and joy, and anticipate the benefits of experience from the admonitions of the aged, is not only the way to enlarge the under-

understanding and fortify the heart, but the best means of rendering the return of other pleasures innocent and delightful.

By thus furnishing the mind with various powers of enjoyment, it is prevented also from being lost in sensuality, or enslaved to the idle gratifications of vanity and pride. Taught to watch for ourselves, from the strange vicissitudes that have befallen others, we first submit to the duty, and then enjoy the benefit of thought and meditation. When the pleasures of the world are interrupted, or withdrawn, which must often be the case, we can retire without regret from what delighted the eye, or charmed the ear, and derive comforts from a purer source; comforts that are independent of others, and accompany us in solitude and silence, in the season of calamity, and at the hour of death. To acquire this discipline over the mind, with which so many blessings are connected, nothing can be more effectual than frequent intercourses with the aged.

Many young persons, I know, are ready to alledge their gravity and moroseness, their indifference to amusements, or their condemnation of pleasure, as bars to this desirable society. But consider, it is not an accession of spirits and vivacity that you want; your foolish confidence and blind credulity need not be increased; and surely the ardor of your passions and desires is already sufficiently dangerous. These require not to be inflamed, but controuled; and we wish you to frequent the company of the aged for what you chiefly want, and they are particularly qualified to bestow;—habits of thought and reflection, sobriety of sentiment, the warnings of experience, and the grand duty of guarding against the temptations of the world.

But you must not expect at once the beauties of the spring, and the fruits of autumn; you must not be disappointed, if you do not find the wisdom of age, enlivened by the gay hopes and boundless confidence of youth; nor must you regret that the exercise of the more amiable virtues is unattended with the raptures of passion, or the endearments of sensibility. That would be as preposterous as to look for roses in December, or to expect that the setting sun should shine with the fervid splendor of noon.

Beside the gradual abatement of appetite and passion, the apathy which satiety or frequent repetition produces, and not to mention the many infirmities of the aged, there are other causes to render them, what we might call, morose, suspicious, and severe. They have seen and are assured of the folly and the danger which attend the pleasures of the world; they have often grieved, and, perhaps, suffered, for the baseness and depravity of men; they have often chased the phantoms of hope, till they have vanished into air; and when other illusions supplied their place, they have grasped at happiness, perhaps, but embraced misery. Can you wonder then that prudence should sometimes teach them to apprehend

hend evil, where you see nothing but good? And that their expectations should be moderate, their wishes sober, and their passions subdued?’

The fourth Sermon is extremely curious; the subject is important, and the argument well conducted.—The succeeding observations appear unanswerable.

‘ Among the many distinguishing properties of the soul, which, while they exalt us far above mere matter, seem to give us an earnest of immortality, is consciousness; or that power by which we are assured of our existence, and capable of recognizing our own actions. The reasons which lead us to believe, that this attribute of our intellectual nature will accompany us hereafter, are various. It seems, indeed, to be one of the most essential qualities of the soul; nor can we conceive how it could exist without it. What, for instance, can give it identity, if deprived of consciousness by the stroke of death?’

‘ We judge of every thing by its properties. If we take from matter, figure or extension, we can no longer have any adequate idea of it; and if we withdraw from spirit the property of consciousness, we reduce it to mere inanity. Nor is it easy to imagine that this attribute of the soul, which seems necessary to its existence at all times, should attend us at one particular period, and not at another. Were consciousness suspended in the soul of man, he would be virtually lost till it should be restored again; and were it to cease with regard to the past, at any particular stage of our being, and admit only the events of futurity, such a cessation would be equivalent to the production of an entirely new creature.

‘ To imagine, therefore, that the chain of existence shall be broken, that there will be a chasm between this life and the next, or that the veil of eternal oblivion will be spread over the past, is to admit a supposition that seems inconsistent with the wisdom, grandeur, and simplicity of the Creator’s works.

‘ Besides, we cannot conceive how a poor trembling child of dust can be a proper object of condemnation before the Almighty Father, who has no knowledge, no remembrance of what is past. Surely, it would neither become his wisdom nor his mercy to “enter into judgment” with one who was no longer conscious of his errors, and therefore incapable of feeling the justice of his sentence. But on this head the scripture, indeed, is sufficiently clear: besides the passage of the text, we are told by our Lord himself, “that every idle word, that men shall speak, they shall give account thereof, in the day of judgment.” To do this, therefore, supposes that such a perfect and extensive consciousness, as the soul in a state of mortality cannot hope to possess. The holy apostle, also, declares, on the authority of the prophet, that “every
“ tongue

"tongue shall confess to God;" and that "every one of us shall give account of himself." Our Saviour's description of the last day evidently implies the same; and St. Peter, in his first general epistle, did not forget to remind the brethren, that they were to "give account to him that is ready to judge the quick and the dead."

' Farther, from a belief in the sacred principle of consciousness; from a conviction that the soul contains within herself the eternal repository of good and evil, we might derive many important reflections, and enforce many salutary truths. Before you suffer yourselves to be enticed to sin by the pleasures and temptations of the world, remember that the consciousness of it will attend you for ever and for ever.

' Much iniquity might pass without reproach among men, and many are "the hidden works of darkness;" but when the vanities of this life are past, it will be impossible to stifle the voice of conscience; and though you "could take the wings of the morning, and remain in the uttermost parts of the sea," you would never escape from the knowledge of yourselves. In the busy pursuits of pleasure and of gain; when we grasp at promiscuous enjoyments, or sigh for the distinctions of power, we might review our transgressions, and remember our manifold neglects without sorrow and without shame; but when the miseries of guilt shall prey upon the mind, without even the pleasures of sin to divert its attention; when we look back on the horrid waste of time, in a world where the crown of immortality was to be won by vigilance and care, or lost by sloth and negligence; when we recollect, with pangs of ingratitude, that teach us to despise ourselves, the mercy and the goodness of God; when we dwell with all the anguish of a broken heart on blessings that were once within our reach, but which are now gone for ever; and, in addition to all this, when, like the poor wretch in the parable, we recognize, perhaps, some spirit in bliss, and see the great gulph of eternity fixed between us; then shall we learn the true value of human life; then shall we find that "one thing only was needful," and that no small share of the sufferings of the wicked must flow from that consciousness, which accompanies every human soul beyond "the valley and shadow of death."

' But as it serves to aggravate the torments of guilt, so, perhaps, will it constitute a part of those exalted pleasures which are enjoyed by the saints in heaven. It must be highly pleasing to an intellectual being of the most exalted order, to look back upon the progressive improvement he has made through a long course of ages; to recollect by what means he was enabled to fulfil the measure of his duty, and by what salutary discipline he was trained to an immortality of bliss.

' Angels of light and ministers of heaven, if not at first creat-

ed what they now are, might look back on the small portion of time, in which they sojourned here, perhaps, as on the first instance of the divine bounty, which gave them capacities of happiness and virtue, and placed them in such a scene of trial as furnished them with proper opportunities of exerting their powers. The various sufferings and sorrows of this life, which mere mortals are apt to consider as the greatest evils, they will contemplate with calm delight. To their exalted minds the remembrance of every affliction and calamity will afford them occasion to triumph for the race which they have run so successfully, and the good fight which they have fought under the Captain of their salvation. All will then appear to have worked together for good, and redound to the praise and glory of the omnipotent Creator. Then will "the chastening which for the present seemed not joyous but grievous, be found to yield the peaceable fruit of righteousness;" and then will it appear, that every difficulty and distress of life was necessary to afford them an opportunity of proving their faith and shewing their love; or of practising the important virtues of patience and resignation, constancy and truth, forbearance and humility. Even the remembrance of their frailties, in the regions of mortality, might inspire the song of adoration to the God of all mercies; while the retrospective view of that life which He has deigned to approve, might create such satisfactions as would increase even the happiness of angels.'

Superstition is, perhaps, too commonly (in an age which arrogantly felicitates itself on its imaginary progress in philosophy and science) an object of contempt; but the candour and judgment of our author are equally evinced by his apology for this passion.

' Superstition, though seldom mentioned but as an alarm to terror, hatred or contempt, proceeds originally from passions rationally excited, and dispositions which, abstractedly considered, are indications of virtue: but which, if thoroughly depraved, become the most abundant source of evil.

' From the desire of pleasing and the fear of offending God, every thing that is praise-worthy occasionally proceeds; but to the same grand motives of piety and goodness, may be ascribed some share of that superstition and credulity which has been known to characterise the minds of men, no less distinguished for their wisdom than their virtue. We never feel our weakness so forcibly, as when we contemplate the wisdom and power of the Deity. The relation in which we stand to Him appears so very distant, the dispensations of his providence are so mysterious, and the dread of incurring his displeasure is so awful and overwhelming, that the mind sinks into helpless imbecility, and joyfully embraces every means of quieting its apprehensions and helping its infirmities.

' In

‘ In such a state, therefore, when the child of discipline and candidate for heaven, looks back on his manifold transgressions, and considers that “ the prize of his high calling ” is at stake ; can you wonder that fear should sometimes take too strong hold of him, and that he should grasp, with too much eagerness, at every trifling assistance and every feeble stay, which the policy of man could offer, or the anxieties of hope devise ? Can you wonder that human beings, conscious of their own unworthiness, should in all ages and all nations come to the throne of grace, with peace-offerings and sacrifices in every varied form ?

‘ This timid humility of mind, founded on a conviction of its wants, and a deep sense of its frailties, it has been the constant endeavour of interested and corrupt men to abuse. Their endeavours have too often been successful ; and under the appearance of religion, superstitions have arisen so gross and barbarous, as to leave us in doubt whether to wonder more at the baseness, or the folly of mankind. On those passions and principles, which were intended by nature to give fervor to our piety, and more interesting views of the Almighty, systems of the most despicable fraud and cruelty have been formed.

‘ After contemplating these evils, some have shrunk from every thing allied to the principles of superstition, with that jealous dread which we generally feel of dangers that are past, and calamities under which we see others still labour. But in guarding against errors of conduct, and abuses of reason, it is difficult to avoid extremes. Man is too often, in religious concerns, the abject slave of fear and superstition, or the weak, but consequential upstart of vanity and pride.’

These are followed by some excellent remarks on the opposite vice.

‘ Others are so afraid of superstition, that they will shrink from every appointed form of duty, merely to indulge their indolence and vanity ; or to show their exemption from prejudice and their superior wisdom. This is a delusion by which the heart is often betrayed before the understanding is convinced, and will always operate on those who are more attached to the little pride of singularity, than to the generous love of virtue and of truth.

‘ Men there are of a different description, who, partly from nature, prejudice, and education, are equally averse to the ordinances of religious worship. They are perhaps calm and contemplative ; they can meditate on the being, attributes, and providence of the Almighty Father, with as little emotion, and as little interest, as they contemplate the power of gravity, or investigate the laws of motion. The virtues in which they chiefly boast are temperance, chastity, equity and truth. They can form no idea of those satisfactions in religion, which arise from the union

of

of reason and sensibility. They will rest satisfied with a few speculative truths; and are content to acknowledge that the Deity is every where, without feeling his presence, or adoring him any where. The ordinances of worship, therefore, and the comforts of prayer are to them, what the gospel was to the Jews and the Greeks; to the one "a stumbling-block, and to the other foolishness."

* Yet this, perhaps, we might treat with some indulgence, if it did not often lead to a sort of supercilious contempt for the practice of others; and if we did not frequently discover a vain effort to magnify a real defect of character into what they please to call superior wisdom, or greatness of mind. But, indeed, there is scarcely a weakness incident to man, which self-love will not endeavour to connect with some degree of excellence. Thus will they often claim the highest merit for virtues which they were under no temptation to violate, and think others of no consequence, because they cannot feel their obligation with sufficient force.'

The Sermon on Idleness cannot be too highly commended for its general utility—A sentiment which frequent experience has made trite, is thus happily and forcibly illustrated by Mr. Hewlett.

* If we consider those of middle life, who might be said to possess the object of Agar's prayer, and to have "neither poverty nor riches," we shall perceive the same vice diffusing its miseries. Under the pleasing delusion of comfort and of ease, we might observe some quitting the active scenes of life, which habit had rendered familiar, and almost natural, in pursuit of happiness in retirement. But it is not every mind that is formed, or prepared for the enjoyment of solitude. To those who have been long engaged in the business and bustle of the world, it often becomes particularly irksome. Few that retire in this manner carry with them a mind disposed to meditation; or furnished with sufficient knowledge to render it at once profitable and pleasing. Few promise to themselves the sublime and uninterrupted comforts of religion; and many have no taste either for rural pleasures, for the beauties of nature, or the pursuits of science.

* Under such circumstances solitude becomes a burden; and a state of retirement degenerates into a state of idleness. A languid discontent and a peevish neglect of ordinary comforts soon lead to sensuality and excess of every kind. Self-indulgence is the last idol of the heart, and the short remnant of life is often divided between the feebleness, or pain of disease, and the stupors of intoxication.'

We shall conclude with one extract more, which contains a most useful and philosophical sentiment—Indeed we are convinced

vinced that illiberality among Christians, wherever it is found, whether with churchmen or Dissenters, is the pure and genuine effect of ignorance.

‘ In recommending the essential truths of Christianity, and endeavouring to extend its influence, we might forget that we are of any particular church, and consider every sincere disciple of Jesus as our friend and brother : for restrain men as you will, bind them with articles and creeds, compel them by the same penalties, and allure them by the same rewards, still they will differ in opinion. It is the prerogative of nature, of all who think ; and were it possible to delineate our minds with accuracy, they would no more resemble each other than our faces. This infinite variety pervades the universe. It is the striking characteristic of the moral, as well as the natural world. And perhaps the different tints of intellectual beauty, the varying contrast of sentiment and thought, the opposite directions of will and the endless combination of the passions might be as pleasing to the Almighty Father, as the hills and valleys, the rivers and mountains with which he has adorned the earth, or the glorious diversity which he first created in the stars of heaven.

‘ The Christian religion clearly admits of this variety, where its essential truths and duties are not concerned ; and, indeed, it is as impossible that men should have precisely the same thoughts and opinions, as it is that the different scenes in nature should be exact counterparts of each other. Even in the history of the holy apostles we may discover a striking contrast between the characters of Peter and John, St. James and Paul. But though every man will claim the privilege of being, in many respects, an individual self, distinct from others, yet let us not convert this natural liberty and independence of the soul into a proud spirit of dissention, nor use it for a cloke of evil. Let us rest satisfied with our own principles and persuasions without invading the rights of others ; and, above all things, let us avoid that tyranny of opinion, which leads some to imagine that they only can discover truth, and that all men else are wandering in the dark. Still let us “ hold fast the form of sound words,” and embrace every means which the goodness of divine providence hath afforded, of cleansing our iniquities and helping our infirmities. In particular, when we look forward to the prize of our high calling, and hope for a blessed immortality through Jesus Christ our Lord, let us be earnest and unwearied in fulfilling the measure of duty that is required, and, like the holy apostles, shew that we all are, on those occasions, “ of one heart and one soul.”

On the whole, the present volume forms a valuable addition to the stock of excellent practical sermons, which the divines of this country have lately produced. The same simplicity
C. R. N. AR. (VIII.) May, 1793. G which

which distinguishes the title is found in the body of the work; as Mr. Hewlet disclaims the meretricious art of holding forth his discourses as peculiarly adapted to the *present times*, so we are of opinion that his labours, being founded on a more durable basis, that of general utility, will long survive those flimsy productions which aim at captivating curiosity, but are incapable of satisfying any rational mind.

A Gazetteer of France, containing every City, Town, and Village, in that extensive Country, shewing the Distances of the Cities and great Towns from Paris. And at the end of the small Towns and Villages noting the Post-Offices through which Letters, &c. are conveyed to each. With a descriptive Account of every Country; Boundaries, Extent, and Natural Produce. Including the chief Harbours, Bays, Rivers, Canals, Forests, Mines, Hills, Vales, and Medicinal Springs. The Whole including above forty Thousand Places. Illustrated with a Map, divided into Departments. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.

THE importance of France in the scale of politics at this crisis, renders it impossible to read a newspaper with pleasure, without the assistance of some work such as that now before us. The author of these volumes modestly informs us 'that they are little else than a translation of the *Dictionnaire Geographique portatif de la France*,' which we believe to be the best work of the kind extant as to France, and indeed there is ample reason to be satisfied with the minute attention which has been paid to the topography of that country in the English work, as it appears that scarcely the most trifling village is omitted. A most excellent map of France divided into departments, is prefixed to the first volume, with an alphabetical list of the departments, including their chief towns, and referring to the antient division into provinces and dioceses. The distances of places from each other being so minutely marked, must render this book exceedingly convenient for travellers, and the name of the post-town to which letters are to be conveyed for each village being annexed to those of the respective villages, must greatly facilitate correspondence. The author has retained the description of the antient provinces, and with one or two of these and a few of the towns, &c. as specimens of the execution, we shall conclude our review.

'*Anjou*, a province of France bounded on the east by Touraine, on the north by Maine, on the west by Bretagne, and on the south by Poitou: its greatest length from east to west is about 30 leagues, and its greatest breadth about 24, it is watered by a great

number of rivers but six only are navigable, the Loire which runs through the middle of the province, the Vienne, the Thoue, the Loire, the Mayenne, and the Sartre; the climate is temperate, and the country agreeably diversified with hills, plains, and forests, of which they reckon 33 of oaks and beech. The productions of the land are wines (chiefly white), wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, almonds, chesnuts, and most kinds of fruits excellent and in great plenty. It feeds a great number of oxen, cows, and sheep. Coals are dug in the parishes of St. Aubin, de Luigné, Chaudefons, Chalonne, Montejean-sur-Loire, St. Georges, &c. There are quarries of marble and freestone, and the best slate in the kingdom. The commerce of Anjou consists principally in wine, brandy, grain, cattle, cloth, stuffs, ironmongery, &c.'

‘ *Calais*, a sea-port town in Picardy, strongly fortified, with a citadel, &c. in the diocese of Boulogne, and generality of Amiens: there are regular packets for the mail to and from Dover, as well as other vessels for passengers, and a canal to S. Omers, Gravelines, Dunkirk, &c. it has only one parish, but is supposed to contain upwards of 4000 inhabitants. Calais is 5 leagues from Gravelines, 10 from Dunkirk, 13 from Furnes, 17 Dixmude, 23 from Ostende, 4 from Ardres, 10 from S. Omer, 19 from Bethune, 27 from Arras, 35 from Péronne, 48 from S. Quentin, 15 from Cassel, 27 from Lille, 30 from Tournay, 46 from Bruxelles, 28 from Douay, 36 from Cambray, 56 from Laon, 67 from Rheims, 77 from Châlons-sur-Marne, 116 from Langres, 132 from Dijon, $8\frac{1}{2}$ from Boulogne, $17\frac{1}{2}$ from Montreuil, $27\frac{1}{2}$ from Abbeville, 38 from Amiens, and 69 from Paris. *Bureau de poste.*

‘ *Condé*. 1. A small but strong city of Flanders, in the diocese of Cambray, and generality of Lille; 3 leagues from Valenciennes, 3 from Seuzé, 6 from Ath, 15 from Bruxelles, 7 from Bouchain, 11 from Cambray, 16 from Lille, 10 from Landrecy, 11 from Maubeuge, 19 from Phillipville, 24 from Givet, 25 from Laon, 36 from Rheims, 46 from Chalons, and $54\frac{1}{2}$ from Paris. *Bureau de poste.* 2. A town of Beauce, in the diocese and election of Chartres. *p. Houdan.* 3. A small town of Picardy, in the diocese and election of Amiens. *p. Amiens.* 4. A village of Brie, in the election of Château-Thierry. *p. Château Thierry.* 5. A village of Champagne, in the election of Epernay. *p. Epernay.* 6. A village of Beauce, in the election of Montfort-l'Amaury. *p. Nogent-le-Rotrou.* 7. A village of Normandy, in the election of Alençon. *p. Alençon.* 8. A village of Picardy, in the diocese and election of Laon. *p. Soissons.* 9. A hamlet of Burgundy, in the bailiwick of Chalon. *p. Chalon.* 10. A small river of Quercy, which rises near Bellemont, and runs into the Aveiron.’

‘ *Escaut*, the Scheld, a river which rises in the Vermandois, passes by Cambray, Bouchain, Neuville, Valenciennes, where it becomes navigable to Tournay, Oudenarde, Ghent, and Antwerp, to Fort Lillo, where it is divided into two streams, which discharge themselves into the German ocean, one by Bergen-op-Zoom, and the other by Flushing. The navigation to Antwerp is stopped.’

‘ *Marseille*, a city and sea port of Provence, large rich and well peopled, carrying on an extensive commerce with all parts of the world, with a good and capacious harbour fit for vessels of merchandize but not of war : it has several parishes, 3 fauxbourgs, a magnificent arsenal, academies of Belles Lettres, painting, and architecture ; and supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop suffragan of Arles, and was of consequence in the time of the Romans ; 8 leagues from Aix, 15 from Toulon, 38 from Fréjus, 50 from Antibes, 58 from Nice, 27 from Avignon, 34 from Orange, 48 from Montelimart, 60 from Valence, 80 from Vienne, 87 from Lyons, 28 from Tarascon, 34 from Nîmes, $45\frac{1}{2}$ from Montpellier, $83\frac{1}{2}$ from Perpignan, and $202\frac{1}{2}$ from Paris. *Bureau de poste.*’

‘ *Ste. Manébould*, or *Menébould*, an ancient and considerable city of Champagne, the capital of Argonne, situated between two rocks on the river Aisne, in the diocese of Rheims and generality of Châlons ; it has a governor, is the seat of a bailiwick, election, &c. it was anciently very strong, but the fortifications have been long demolished and suffered to decay ; 10 leagues from Châlons, 18 from Vitry le François, 7 from Grandpré, 19 from Mezieres, 14 from Mouzon, 20 from Rheims, 33 from Soissons, 10 from Verdun, 25 from Metz, 24 from Longwy, 37 from Sarrelouis, 43 from Sarebruck, 20 from Montmedy, 29 from Sedan, 56 from Liege, 29 from Thionville, 69 from Lille, $28\frac{1}{2}$ from Troyes, 31 from Nancy, 38 from Luneville, 49 from Sarrebourg, 55 from Deux Ponts, 51 from Biche, 64 from Fort Louis, 74 from Landau, 82 from Spire, 68 from Strasburg, 75 from Besançon, 4 from Clermont-en-Argonne, and $48\frac{1}{2}$ from Paris. *Bureau de poste.*’

‘ *Normandie*, Normandy, a large province, bordered on the east by Picardy, and the Isle of France, on the south by Perche and Maine, on the west by the ocean, and on the north by the channel, which separates it from England. It contains seven dioceses or bishopricks, Rouen, Bayeux, Avranches, Evreux, Sées, Lisieux, and Coutances, in which they compute 4189 parishes, and 80 abbies ; the land is in general very fertile, and produces all sorts of grain in abundance, fruit, and pasturage ; here is also in

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this province mines of copper and iron, and many mineral springs. The principal rivers are the Seine, the Eure, the Aure, the Iton, the Dive, the Andelle, the Rille, the Touque, the Drôme, and the Orne: among the seaports the principal are those of Dieppe, Havre, Honfleur, Cherburgh, and Granville. Rouen is the principal city.'

'Valenciennes, an ancient, strong, and large city of Flanders, the capital of Hainaut-François, situated on the Escaut, in the dioceses of Cambray and Arras, and the generality of Maubeuge; 10 leagues from Douay, 8 from Maubeuge, 19 from Phillippeville, 24 from Givet, 49 from Liege, 13 from Lille, 8 from Mons, 20 from Brussels, 29 from S. Omer, 39 from Calais, 32 from Dunkirk, 42 from Ostend, 4 from Quesnoy, 7 from Landrecy, 11 from Avesnes, 24 from Rocroy, 31 from Mezieres, 36 from Sedan, 44 from Stenay, 55 from Verdun, $70\frac{1}{2}$ from Metz, $110\frac{1}{2}$ from Strasburg, 22 from Laon, $33\frac{1}{2}$ from Rheims, $43\frac{1}{2}$ from Châlons, $53\frac{1}{2}$ from Ste. Manéhoult, $64\frac{1}{2}$ from Bar-le-Duc, 92 from Epinal, 77 from Nancy, $157\frac{1}{2}$ from Lyons, 68 from Thionville, 14 from Arras, 8 from Cambray, 18 from Péronne, 14 from Bapaume, 25 from Amiens, and $51\frac{1}{2}$ from Paris. *Bureau de poste.*

'Verdun. 1. An ancient and strong city of Meffin, situated on the Meuse, in the generality of Metz, the see of a bishop; $15\frac{1}{2}$ leagues from Metz, 19 from Thionville, 23 from Frisange, 28 from Sarlouis, 40 from Sarebourg, $46\frac{1}{2}$ from Saverne, 22 from Nancy, 29 from Luneville, $67\frac{1}{2}$ from Landau, $75\frac{1}{2}$ from Spire, $55\frac{1}{2}$ from Strasburg, 52 from Schelestat, 57 from Colmar, 10 from Montmedy, 14 from Longwy, 19 from Sedan, 46 from Liege, 24 from Mezieres, 31 from Rocroy, 37 from Chimay, 44 from Avesnes, 55 from Valenciennes, 68 from Lille, 87 from Dunkirk, 48 from Maubeuge, 64 from Brussels, 58 from Cambray, 66 from Arras, 64 from Douay, 10 from Ste. Manéhoult, 20 from Châlons, 30 from Rheims, $41\frac{1}{2}$ from Laon, $31\frac{1}{2}$ from Langres, $49\frac{1}{2}$ from Vesoul, $57\frac{1}{2}$ from Dijon, $104\frac{1}{2}$ from Lyons, and $60\frac{1}{2}$ from Paris. *Bureau de poste.* 2. A city of Burgundy, situated at the conflux of the Doux and the Saône; about 7 leagues from Chalon, and 12 from Dijon. *p. Chalon.* 3. A city of Armagnac, the capital of Rivière-Verdun, situated on the Garonne, about 8 leagues from Toulouse. *p. Grenade.* 4. A village of Upper Languedoc, in the diocese and receipt of S. Papoul. *p. Castelnaudary.* 5. A village of Rouergue, in the diocese and election of Rhodéz. *p. Rhodéz.* 6. See *Rivière-Verdun.*

Lysons' Environs of London. (Concluded from Vol. VII. p. 407.)

OF Carshalton we find, p. 122, that it is three miles to the south of Croydon: from the map prefixed, and from fact, for 'south,' we must read 'west.'

In the account of Kingston upon Thames, the following curious article appears:

Price of Provisions, and Labourer's Wages.

	£.	s.	d.
" 24 Hen. 7. Payde for the hyre of a horse to Wynfore	0	0	4
" — A dishe of fysh for my lorde of Merton	0	1	0
" Cost of the Kyngham and Robyn hode, viz.			
" — Kylderkin of 3 halfpenny bere and a kylder-			
kin of singgyl bere	0	2	4
" — 7 bushels of whete	0	6	3
" — 2 bushels and $\frac{1}{2}$ of rye	0	1	8
" — 3 shepe	0	5	0
" — A lamb	0	1	4
" — 2 calvys	0	5	4
" — 6 pygges	0	2	0
" — 3 bushels of colys	0	0	3
" — The coks for their labour	0	1	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 16 Hen. 8. Two women for their labour for two			
days	0	0	6
" The bellman half a year's wages	0	2	0
" 24 Hen. 8. A laborer for a day's work	0	0	7
" 1551. Twelve chicken for master Gardener at			
going to court	0	4	9
" 1567. A laborer's wages	0	0	8
" 1571. A gawne of sack for my lord mayor	0	2	0
" 1575. A capon for Mr. Recorder	0	1	8
" 1576. Eight hens and four capons for Mr. Attor-			
ney	0	13	4
" 1589. Two sugar loaves given to Mr. W. Howard			
at 13d. per pound	1	5	2
" 1601. A labourer's wages	0	0	10
" — A master mason or tyler	0	1	2
" 1617. A troute given to the lorde admiral	0	8	0
" — To Mr. Ball for a white stallion to bestow on			
fir Anthony Ben	11	10	0
" 1623. A couple of pheasants for the earl of Holder-			
nefs	0	14	0
" 1626. A salmon for the judges	2	17	0
" 1662.			

	£.	s.	d.
" 1662. Interest for 200l. for six months -	6	0	0
" 1666. Two terces of claret - -	13	10	0
" 1688. Twelve bottles of sack and the bottles -	1	1	0
" — 24 bottles of claret and the bottles and flasks - - -	1	10	0

A dispute has arisen among the commentators on Shakespeare, concerning sack, the favourite beverage of sir John Falstaff. That liquor is not only here mentioned in 1688, but sack-whey is still a provincial term for white-wine-whey. Sir John mentions Sherez sack, or wine of Xeres (Cherez) in Spain, now called Sherry. The term sack evidently included all the dry (*sec*) white wines, in contradistinction to Malmsey and Canary, &c. or the rich sweet white wines.

In the parish church of Lambeth, is the tomb of Thomas Clere, esq. who died in 1545: over it was formerly a tablet with the following epitaph, written by the celebrated earl of Surrey.

" Epitaphium Thomæ Clere qui fato functis est 1545, auctore Henrico Howard comite Surriensi in cujus felicitis ingenii specimen et singularis facundiæ argumentum appensa fuit hæc tabula per W. Howard, filium Thomæ nuper ducis Norf. filii ejusdem Henrici comitis Surriensis.

" Norfolk sprung thee, Lambeth holds thee dead,
Clere of the count of Cleremont thou hight,
Within the womb of Ormond's race thou bred,
And sawest thy coffin crowned in thy sight;
Shelton for love, Surrey for lord thou chase,
Aye me while life did last that league was tender,
Tracing whose steps thou sawest Kelfall blase,
Laundersey burnt and batter'd Bulleyn's render:
At Muttrell gates hopeless of all recure,
Thine earl half dead, gave in thy hand his will,
Which cause did thee this pining death procure;
Ere summers four-times seven thou couldest fulfill,
Aye, Clere, if love had bootéd care or cost
Heaven had not wonne, nor earth so timely lost."

Among the tombs enumerated in the burial-ground in the High-street Lambeth, we find that of William Milton an engraver, who died in 1790: we believe this is the exquisite artist, who executed the views in Ireland, in a style of various and finished minuteness and elegance, never to be surpassed.

Mr. Lysons carefully marks the comparative state of population in each parish: as a specimen of this department of his work, we shall extract his remarks relating to Lambeth.

• The parish register commences in the year 1539, and, excepting a few deficiencies in the latter part of the last century, appears to have been very accurately kept.

Average of Baptisms.				Average of Burials.	
1580—1589	—	74	—	—	90
1680—1689	about	185	—	about	265
1780—1789	—	510	—	—	629
1780—1785	—	473	—	—	625
1785—1789	—	547	—	—	633
1790	—	632	—	—	626
1791	—	618	—	—	620

• The period of 1680—1689 is not quite perfect in the register, but the average may be calculated pretty nearly at the numbers set down. It may be observed, that the burials have uniformly exceeded the baptisms; and that they have both increased, from the first period to the time of the last average, in a ratio of nearly 7 to 1. In the period 1780—1789, the average of baptisms, during the last five years, exceeds that of the former five by 74; that of burials being nearly equal. By an account taken in the beginning of the present century, it appears, that the parish of Lambeth then contained 1400 houses. In 1778, the houses being numbered by Mr. Middleton, amounted to 2270. In October 1788, they were numbered again, and were found to be increased to 3759. At Michaelmas 1791, the number was 4030. The present number is about 4150, including those which are empty, building, or newly built, and not yet inhabited; these are calculated at nearly 500. The building of Westminster-bridge may be considered as the æra when the rapid increase of the population of this parish commenced. The work-house, which is under very excellent regulations, contains about 300 hundred persons.

• In 1603 there were 566 burials, of which 522 were in the last six months. Twelve corpses were frequently buried in one night, sometimes fourteen. In 1625 there were 623 burials; in 1665, 753; the greatest mortality prevailed in the autumn of each year, as may be seen by the following table:

1625.			1665.		
In July	-	61	In July	-	25
August	-	179	August	-	71
September	-	177	September	-	170
October	-	68	October	-	194
November	-	39	November	-	134
December	-	13	December	-	45

Yet November can hardly be accounted an autumnal month in this climate; the season of 1665 must have been very mild.

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The following anecdote may somewhat relieve the dryness of our preceding extracts.

“ 1588, May the first daye, buried Mr. Andrew Perne, doctor.” Doctor Perne was a native of Norfolk, dean of Ely, and master of Peter-House Cambridge. He is accused of having changed his religion four times in twelve years; it is acknowledged at the same time, that by his influence he saved many innocent people from the flames. Dr. Perne was much given to jesting, of which the following instance is told among many others:—One day he happened to call a clergyman a fool, who was not wholly undeserving of the title; but who resented the indignity so highly, that he threatened to complain to his diocesan the bishop of Ely.—“ Do,” says the doctor, “ and he will confirm you.” Fuller tells an extraordinary story relating to Dr. Perne’s death, which he attributes to the mortification he received from a jest passed upon him by the queen’s fool:—The doctor was at court one day with the archbishop Whitgift, who had been his pupil. The afternoon was rainy, yet the queen was resolved to ride abroad, contrary to the inclination of the ladies of the court, who were to attend her on horseback. They employed Clod, therefore, the queen’s jester, to dissuade her majesty from so inconvenient a journey. Clod readily undertook the task, and addressed her majesty thus:—“ Heaven dissuades you, it is cold and wet; earth dissuades you, it is moist and dirty. Heaven dissuades you, this heavenly-minded man archbishop Whitgift; and earth dissuades you, your fool Clod, such a lump of clay as myself; and if neither will prevail, here is one who is neither heaven nor earth but hangs between both, Dr. Perne, and he also dissuades you.” “ Hereat, says Fuller, the queen and the courtiers laughed heartily, whilst the doctor looked sadly; and going over with his grace to Lambeth, soon died.”

Our ingenious antiquary brings from his treasure, things new and old: the account of alderman Barber, to be found in the description of Mortlake parish, may amuse our readers:

“ John Barber, esq. alderman of London, was buried Jan 9, 1741.” The alderman, who was son of a barber in the city of London, was bred a printer, in which business, by a successful train of circumstances which brought him acquainted with lord Bolingbroke, Swift, Pope, and others of the most eminent writers of the age, he acquired considerable opulence. A remarkable story is told of his dexterity in his profession:—Being threatened with a prosecution by the house of lords for an offensive paragraph in a pamphlet which he had printed, and being warned of his danger by lord Bolingbroke a few hours before the state messengers came

to seize the books, he called in all the copies from the publishers, cancelled the leaf which contained the obnoxious passage throughout the whole impression with wonderful expedition, and returned them to the booksellers with a new paragraph supplied by lord Bolingbroke, so that when the pamphlet was produced before the house, and the passage referred to, it was found perfectly unexceptionable. Mr. Barber acquired great wealth by the South-sea scheme, which he had prudence enough to secure in time, and purchased an estate at East-Sheen with a part of his gain. In principles he was a Jacobite, and on his travels in Italy, whither he went for the recovery of his health, was introduced to the pretender, which exposed him to some danger on his return to England; for immediately on his arrival he was taken into custody by a king's messenger, but was released without punishment. After his success in the South-sea adventure, he was chosen alderman of Castle Baynard ward, and in the year 1773, was lord mayor of London. During his mayoralty, it happened that the scheme of a general excise was brought forward, by his active opposition to which he acquired for a time a considerable degree of popularity, though he is accused of procuring clandestinely from Mr. Bosworth the city chamberlain, the documents which enabled him to make so conspicuous a figure upon that occasion. Among the alderman's public actions it should be mentioned, that he put up a monument to Butler in Westminster-abbey, upon which occasion Pope is said to have written the following severe lines, which he proposed should be placed on the vacant scroll under Shakspeare's bust:

“ Thus Britain loved me, and preserved my fame
Pure from a Barber's or a Benson's name.”

• Alderman Barber by his will, dated Dec. 28, 1740, desired that his body might be buried at Mortlake, as near as possible to the ground which he had given to enlarge the church-yard; he bequeathed 300l. to lord Bolingbroke, 200l. to Dr. Swift, and 100l. to Mr. Pope. He died a few days afterwards, and was buried pursuant to his request.

• On his tomb is the following inscription:

“ Under this stone are laid the remains of John Barber, esq. alderman of London, a constant benefactor to the poor, true to his principles in church and state. He preserved his integrity and discharged the duty of an upright magistrate in the most corrupt times. Zealous for the rights of his fellow-citizens, he opposed all attempts against them; and being lord mayor in the year 1733, was greatly instrumental in defeating a scheme of a general excise, which (had it succeeded) would have put an end to the liberties of his country. He departed this life January 2, 1740-41; aged 65.”

The celebrated sir John Barnard, another patriotic citizen
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is also buried at Mortlake. The account of Dr. Dee, the magician, who resided at Mortlake, is very curious, and well drawn up: it is accompanied with a portrait, but the style of the engravings in this class, to be found in the present volume, we cannot approve; it is too uniform and pretty, and does not give an exact impression of the features.

From the parish of Putney, we shall extract the following short account of Mr. Wood the traveller.

“ Robert Wood, esq. late member of parliament, buried in a new vault in the new burial ground, Sept. 15, 1771.” Mr. Wood is well known to the public as a scientific traveller and a classical writer. In the year 1751, he made the tour of Greece, Egypt, and Palestine, in company with Mr. Dawkins; and at his return published a splendid work in folio, entitled “The Ruins of Palmyra, otherwise Tedmor in the Desert,” being an account of the ancient and modern state of that place; with a great number of elegant engravings of its ruins by Fourdrinier, from drawings made on the spot. This was followed by a similar work respecting Balbec. Mr. Wood was meditating future publications relating to other parts of his tour, especially Greece, when he was called upon to serve his country in a more important station, being appointed under secretary of state by the late earl of Chatham; during the whole of whose prosperous administration, as well as in those of his two immediate successors, he continued in that situation. Mr. Wood was author also of an Essay on the Genius of Homer, and left him several MSS. relating to his travels, but not sufficiently arranged to afford any hopes of their being given to the public. The house in which he lived in Putney is situated between the roads which lead to Wandsworth and Wimbledon, and is now the residence of his widow. Mr. Wood purchased it of the executors of Edward Gibbon, esq. whose son, the celebrated historian, was born there. The farm and pleasure grounds which adjoin the house are very spacious, containing near fourscore acres, and surrounded by a gravel walk, which commands a beautiful prospect of London and the adjacent country. Mr. Wood was buried in the cemetery near the upper road to Richmond. On his monument is the following inscription, drawn up by the hon. Horace Walpole (now earl of Orford) at the request of his widow:

“ To the beloved memory of Robert Wood, a man of supreme benevolence, who was born at the castle of Riverstown near Trim, in the county of Meath, and died Sept. 9th, 1771, in the fifty-fifth year of his age; and of Thomas Wood his son, who died August 25th, 1772, in his ninth year; Ann, their once happy wife and mother, now dedicates this melancholy and inadequate memorial of her affection and grief. The beautiful editions of

Balbec

Balbec and Palmyra, illustrated by the classic pen of Robert Wood, supply a nobler and more lasting monument, and will survive those august remains."

In the biographical memoir, concerning Christian, countess of Devonshire, in the time of Charles I. and II. we think we can trace, as in some other parts, the skillful hand of Horace Walpole, earl of Orford, to whom the book is dedicated. The wine of Vascony, p. 448, should be wine of Gascony (*Vasconia*.)

At the end of the volume there is an Appendix, containing additions to many of the parishes, and an account of Bermondsey parish, which was at first understood to belong to the borough of Southwark, and of course not to fall under the plan of this work; but was afterwards found to be totally unconnected with the borough. In describing this parish, Mr. Lysons observes, p. 548, that the traditional appropriation of very ancient houses to king John, is not unfrequent. May it not refer to king John of France, who, when a prisoner here, might be lodged in many different houses?

The following very singular entry occurs in the register of this parish, A. D. 1604.

"The forme of a solemne vowe made betwixt a man and his wife, havinge bene longe absent, through which occasion the woman beinge married to another man, tooke her again as followeth:

The man's speach:

"Elizabeth, my beloved wife, I am right sorie that I have so longe absented mysealfe from thee, whereby thou shouldest be occasioned to take another man to be thy husband. Therefore I do now vowe and promise, in the sighte of God and this companie, to take thee againe as mine owne; and will not onlie forgive thee, but also dwell with thee, and do all other duties unto thee, as I promised at our marriage.

The woman's speach:

"Raphe, my beloved husband, I am right sorie that I have in thy absence taken another man to be my husband; but here, before God and this companie, I do renounce and forsake him, and do promise to kepe mysealfe only unto thee during life, and to performe all duties which I first promised unto thee in our marriage."

Then follows a short occasional prayer, and the entry concludes thus:

"The first day of August 1604, Raphe Goodchild of the parish of Barkinge in Thames-streat, and Elizabeth his wife, were agreed to live together, and thereupon gave their hands one to another,

another, making either of them a solemne vowe so to doe, in the presence of us,

William Stere, parson.
Edward Coker,
and Richard Eires, clark."

* The following entry is also singular :

" James Herriott, esq. and Elizabeth Josey, Gent. were married Jan. 4, 1624-5. N. B. This James Herriott was one of the 40 children of his father, a Scotchman."

This volume closes with a state of the population of the parishes described, whence it appears that the number of houses amounts to 18,061, of inhabitants to 108,790.

Upon the whole, the present volume deserves great approbation, and we shall rejoice to see the work completed upon the same plan.

An Historical Journal of the Transactions at Port Jackson and Norfolk Island, with the Discoveries which have been made in New South Wales and in the Southern Ocean, since the Publication of Phillip's Voyage, compiled from the Official Papers; including the Journals of Governors Phillip and King, and of Lieut. Ball: and the Voyages from the first sailing of the Sirius, in 1787, to the return of that Ship's Company to England, in 1792, by John Hunter, Esq. Post Captain in his Majesty's Navy. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1793.

A JOURNAL of voyages in remote parts of the globe, when executed with fidelity, is usually productive of some addition to the funds both of geographical knowledge and natural history; and on this account, though the incidents should not prove highly interesting, it yet merits the attention of the public. The volume now before us may be regarded as a work of this nature; and the object becomes more remarkable, as the materials it contains are derived from no less important a source in a political view, than the transportation of convicts to Botany Bay.

The Journal commences the 25th of October, 1786, when his majesty's ship *Sirius*, and the *Supply* armed tender, were commissioned for the purpose of transportation; the command of the former being given to Arthur Phillip, esq. and that of the latter to lieutenant Henry Lidgbird Ball. The author of the Journal was soon after appointed second captain of the *Sirius*, with the rank of post-captain, and with power to command her in the absence of the principal captain. On the 13th of February, 1787, the two vessels sailed from the
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Mother Bank, in company with six transports, having on board six hundred male, and two hundred female convicts, and three store ships, carrying provisions and various other stores. In the beginning of June they arrived at the Canary Islands, where we meet with an account of the towns of Laguna and Santa-Cruz. The plain on which Laguna stands is pleasant and fertile, ornamented likewise with many gardens. It is surrounded by very high mountains, down the sides of which, in the rainy season, vast torrents of water proceed. The journalist saw nothing of the lake from which this place derives its name; but was informed that it is now a very inconsiderable piece of water. Probably the accounts given of there having been a large lake in that part, may have originated from the plain being quite a swamp during the fall of the heavy rains.

The town of Santa-Cruz is very irregularly built: the principal street is broad, and has more the appearance of a square than a street. At the lower end of it there is a square monument, commemorating the appearance of Notre Dame to the Guanches, the original inhabitants of the island. The outskirts of the town have more the appearance of a place deserted and in ruins, than a place of trade; for many of the houses are either left half-built, or have fallen to decay from some other cause; and the stone-walls which were their principal fences, are broken down and in ruins.

On the 14th of July the voyagers passed the equator, in longitude $26^{\circ} 10'$ west, and with $5^{\circ} 00'$ west variation. The south-east trade-wind now made ample amends for the failure of the north-east, which they had a little before experienced: for it blew a fresh and steady breeze from east-south-east to east, a circumstance which Mr. Hunter believes to be rather uncommon, when the sun has so great north declination. On the 6th of August the voyagers reached the island of Raz, a low flat island. The ships in general had been remarkably healthy: the whole number buried since they left England was sixteen, of which only six had died between Teneriffe and this place; though it is a very trying part of the voyage to people who have not been accustomed to warm climates, and have fed on salt provisions during the passage. The voyagers received the most civil treatment at this island. A day or two after their arrival, the whole of the officers were introduced to the viceroy, who seemed desirous of making their accommodation as agreeable as possible, consistent with his instructions, relative to foreigners, from the court of Portugal.

The place next visited by the voyagers was the Cape of Good Hope, from which, after a short stay, they departed
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on the 13th of November. In the beginning of January they perceived the sea covered with luminous spots, resembling lanterns floating on its surface. Whether this appearance proceeded from the spawn of fish, which may swim in small collected quantities, or from that animal of jelly-like substance, which is known to sailors by the name of blubber, the author of the journal does not take upon him to determine; but he is inclined to ascribe it to the latter, as they had seen in the day some of the blubber of a large size.

In those parts of the ocean were seen many animals playing by the sides of the ships. At first it was imagined they were seals; but after having seen a great number of them, Mr. Hunter was satisfied that they were of a different species. Their heads, different from those of the seals, were long, and tapered to the nose. They had very long whiskers, and frequently raised themselves half the length of the body out of the water, to look round them; and often leaped entirely out. From these circumstances, the author judged them to be a species of the sea-otter.

On the 26th of January, 1788, the voyagers anchored in Port Jackson, on the coast of New Holland. As it may not be unacceptable to our readers to have a short account of the natives of this remote region, from so good authority as that of the present journalist, we lay before them the following extract.

* A few days after my arrival with the transports in Port Jackson, I set off with a six-oared boat and a small boat, intending to make as good a survey of the harbour as circumstances would admit: I took to my assistance Mr. Bradley, the first lieutenant, Mr. Keltie, the master, and a young gentleman of the quarter-deck. During the time we were employed on this service, we had frequent meetings with different parties of the natives, whom we found at this time very numerous; a circumstance which I confess I was a little surprised to find, after what had been said of them in the voyage of the *Endeavour*; for I think it is observed in the account of that voyage, that at Botany-bay they had seen very few of the natives, and that they appeared a very stupid race of people, who were void of curiosity. We saw them in considerable numbers, and they appeared to us to be a very lively and inquisitive race; they are a straight, thin, but well made people, rather small in their limbs, but very active; they examined with the greatest attention, and expressed the utmost astonishment, at the different covering we had on; for they certainly considered our cloaths as so many different skins, and the hat as a part of the head: they were pleased with such trifles as we had to give them, and always appeared chearful and in good humour:

humour : they danced and sung with us, and imitated our words and motions, as we did theirs. They generally appeared armed with a lance, and a short stick which assists in throwing it : this stick is about three feet long, is flattened on one side, has a hook of wood at one end, and a flat shell let into a split in the stick at the other end, and fastened with gum ; upon the flat side of this stick the lance is laid, in the upper end of which is a small hole, into which the point of the hook of the throwing stick is fixed ; this retains the lance on the flat side of the stick ; then poising the lance, thus fixed, in one hand, with the fore-finger and thumb over it, to prevent its falling off side-ways, at the same time holding fast the throwing-stick, they discharge it with considerable force, and in a very good direction, to the distance of about sixty or seventy yards. Their lances are in general about ten feet long : the shell at one end of the throwing-stick is intended for sharpening the point of the lance, and for various other uses. I have seen these weapons frequently thrown, and think that a man upon his guard may with much ease, either parry or avoid them, although it must be owned they fly with astonishing velocity.

While employed on the survey of the harbour, we were one morning early, in the upper part of it, and at a considerable distance from the ship, going to land, in order to ascertain a few angles, when we were a little surprised to find the natives here in greater numbers than we had ever seen them before in any other place : we naturally conjectured from their numbers, that they might be those who inhabited the coves in the lower part of the harbour, and who, upon our arrival, had been so much alarmed at our appearance, as to have judged it necessary to retire farther up ; they appeared very hostile, a great many armed men appeared upon the shore wherever we approached it, and, in a threatening manner, seemed to insist upon our not presuming to land. During the whole time we were near them, they hailed each other through the woods, until their numbers were so much increased, that I did not judge it prudent to attempt making any acquaintance with them at this time : for, as I have already observed, we had only a six-oared boat and a smaller one ; our whole number, leaving one man in each boat, amounted to ten seamen, three officers, and myself, with only three muskets ; we therefore for the present, contented ourselves with making signs of friendship, and returned to the ship. In two days after, we appeared again in the same place, better armed and prepared for an interview. Their numbers were not now so many, at least we did not see them, although it is probable they were in the wood at no great distance : but having occasion to put on shore to cook some provisions for the boats crews, I chose a projecting point of land for that purpose, which we could have defended against some hundreds of such

such people : I ordered two marine centinels upon the deck, in order to prevent a surprize, and immediately set about making a fire. We soon heard some of the natives in the wood on the opposite shore ; we called to them, and invited them by signs, and an offer of presents, to come over to us, the distance not being more than one hundred yards across : in a short time, seven men embarked in canoes and came over ; they landed at a small distance from us, and advanced without their lances ; on this I went up to meet them, and held up both my hands, to shew that I was unarmed ; two officers also advanced in the same manner ; we met them and shook hands ; but they seemed a good deal alarmed at our five marines who were under arms by the boats, upon which they were ordered to ground their arms and stay by them ; the natives then came up with great chearfulness and good humour, and seated themselves by our fire amongst us, where we ate what we had got, and invited them to partake ; but they did not relish our food or drink.

‘ The men in general are from five feet six inches, to five feet nine inches high ; are thin, but very straight and clean made ; walk very erect, and are active. The women are not so tall or so thin, but are generally well made ; their colour is a rusty kind of black, something like that of foot, but I have seen many of the women almost as light as a mulatto. We have seen a few of both sexes with tolerably good features, but in general they have broad noses, large wide mouths and thick lips ; and their countenance altogether not very prepossessing ; and what makes them still less so, is, that they are abominably filthy ; they never clean their skins, but it is generally smeared with the fat of such animals as they kill, and afterwards covered with every sort of dirt ; sand from the sea beach, and the ashes from their fires, all adhere to their greasy skin, which is never washed, except when accident or the want of food obliges them to go into the water. Some of the men wear a piece of wood or bone, thrust through the septum of the nose, widens the nostril, and spreads the lower part very much ; this, no doubt, they consider as a beauty ; most of those we had hitherto met, wanted the two foremost teeth on the right side of the upper jaw ; and many of the women want the two lower joints of the little finger of the left hand, which we have not yet been able to discover the reason or meaning of. This defect of the little finger we have observed in old women, and in young girls of eight or nine years old ; in young women who have had children, and in those who have not, the finger has been seen perfect in individuals of all the above ages and descriptions ; they have very good teeth in general ; their hair is short, strong, and curly, and as they seem to have no method of cleaning or combing it, it is therefore filthy and matted. The men wear their

beards which are short and curly, like the hair of the head. Men, women, and children go entirely naked, as described by captain Cook; they seem to have no fixed place of residence, but take their rest wherever night overtakes them: they generally shelter themselves in such cavities or hollows in the rocks upon the sea shore, as may be capable of defending them from the rain; and in order to make their apartment as comfortable as possible, they commonly make a good fire in it before they lie down to rest; by which means the rock all round them is so heated as to retain its warmth like an oven for a considerable time; and upon a little grass which is previously pulled and dried, they lie down and huddle together.'

The voyagers had reason to believe, that the nations associate in tribes of many families together. It afterwards became evident, that they have one fixed residence, and the tribe takes its name from the place of their general habitation. We are assured that they are by no means a brave and determined people, except when passion overcomes them; and then they act, as all savages, like madmen.

With respect to religion, the voyagers were not able to discover that the natives have any object of adoration. That they burn their dead, appeared from indubitable evidence. The animal described in the voyage of the Endeavour, and called the kangaroo, was found in great numbers. One which was shot weighed 140 pounds: its tail was 40 inches long, and 17 in circumference at the root. It is said to be well described in Phillip's voyage. The voyagers ate the flesh with great relish, and think it good mutton, though not so delicate as what is sometimes found in the London market. The opossum is also very numerous, but not exactly like that of America. There are several other animals of a smaller size, down as low as the field-rat, which, in some part partakes of the kangaroo and opossum. The voyagers have caught many rats with a pouch for carrying their young when pursued; and the legs, claws and tail of this rat are exactly like those of the kangaroo. It would appear, says our author, from the great similarity in some part or other of the different quadrupeds found in this country, that there is a promiscuous intercourse between the sexes of those different animals.

There is in this country a great variety of birds, particularly of the parrot tribe. The common crow is found in great numbers, but the sound of their voice and manner of croaking are very different from those in Europe. There are also vast numbers of hawks, of various sizes and colours; with pigeons, quails, and a great variety of smaller birds; but our author has not found one with a pleasing note.

The variety of insects is as great as that of the birds. Of reptiles, there are snakes from the smallest size known in England, to the length of eleven feet, and about as thick as a man's wrist; with many lizards of different kinds and sizes.

The dogs appear to be domesticated, as in Europe; they are of the wolf kind, and of a reddish colour.

The native plants and flowers of the country are mentioned as numerous and beautiful; but of these Mr. Hunter gives no particular detail. He has however favoured his readers with a general account of the weather at this settlement, during each month, from the end of January, 1788, when the voyagers arrived, until March, 1789.

In February, 1790, on account of a disappointment of supplies, governor Phillips saw a necessity of dividing the settlement, and therefore resolved on sending a certain number of marines and convicts to Norfolk Island, at which place, he understood, there were many resources which Port Jackson did not afford. This plan was accordingly carried into execution with all possible dispatch. A number of marines and convicts were put on board the *Sirius*, and safely debarked on Norfolk island; but after the principal part of the provisions had been landed, the ship, in consequence of tempestuous weather, was unfortunately lost. This accident threw the infant colony into the utmost distress; and they must have run the hazard of perishing by famine, had it not been for a species of bird, with which the place abounded, and which the author on this occasion, emphatically calls "the bird of Providence." It appeared to resemble that sea bird in England, called the puffin.

Norfolk Island, according to Mr. Hunter's account, is about five miles long, and nearly three in breadth; very thickly covered with wood, of which there are six or seven different kinds. The most conspicuous is the pine-tree, which grows to a prodigious size; being from 150 to 203 feet high, and in circumference, from 12 to 14 feet; some to 28 and 30 feet. This little island is extremely well watered. Our author informs us, that if laid down in a plan, with all the hills and vallies represented accurately, it would very much resemble the waves of the sea in a gale of wind; for it is composed entirely of long, narrow, and very steep ridges of hills, with deep gullies, which are as narrow at the bottom as the hills are to the top, so that there is scarcely any level country upon it; but as viewed from the sea, it appears quite level, the different ridges being nearly the same in height. This great unevenness of the ground occasions much labour in cultivation, and renders it wholly impossible to use the plough, even if the ground were sufficiently cleared, and there were cattle to

work; every labour of that kind must be done by hand. When our author left the island, in February 1791, there was little more than a hundred acres cleared for the colony, exclusive of private gardens; but all the roots of the trees were left in the ground, and must in his opinion, occupy a fifth part of it. A more luxuriant soil than that of the whole island, Mr. Hunter assures us, he never met with in any part of the world.

Our limits will not permit us to extend the account of the present volume to greater length; but it contains much information respecting the state and proceedings of the British colonies in the southern hemisphere. Among the numerous articles of intelligence, we learn that a whale-fishery is established on the coast of New South-Wales; and it seems probable, that, from habits of industry, prompted by necessity, the convicts will, in time, be reclaimed from the destructive courses which proved the cause of their transportation. Exclusive of the Historical Journal and Voyages, this work is enriched with meteorological, astronomical, and natural observations, separately exhibited, as well as with charts; the whole of which afford evidence of judgment, attention, and accuracy.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

The Crisis stated; or, serious and seasonable Hints upon War in general, and upon the Consequences of a War with France. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1793.

ALthough the period is past for which this intelligent little pamphlet was avowedly calculated, and we are actually plunged into a war, the author has rendered society a very acceptable service, by setting in its true light the atrocious practice of transforming men into machines, and inducing them to destroy each other without any personal motive.

‘It is wonderful, says the author, with what indifference and unconcern, a crisis, so serious as the present, is beheld. But our wonder will be diminished, when we enumerate the mean and despicable artifices which governments ever employ to produce this infatuation, and to make war (the curse of the whole human race) a subject palatable to the people. They keep them in profound ignorance of its effects; they inflame their passions, flatter their pride, and deceive them by all the empty and disgusting pageant-ries which march in the train of military preparations. Armaments, reviews, drums, flags, crowds, and acclamations, are the
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hacknied stage-tricks employed to cover a measure which will not bear a cool examination.

‘ But war is neither the innocent, amusing, nor honourable pastime, which ministers and their adherents often represent it to be. It is at no time, and under no circumstances, a very desirable measure: it is an evil to be endured when unavoidable, rather than coveted when unnecessary. Religion condemns the practice of war; reason forbids it; true policy is averse to it; and experience declares it to be the scourge of mankind.’

We shall conclude our remarks with the following passage, which applies to the present state of this country with respect to war.

‘ Of a war commenced contrary to reason, contrary to justice, we cannot calculate the calamity, nor anticipate the disgrace. The evils of such a war it is our duty to attempt to shorten, if we cannot altogether prevent. Should an unjust, impolitic, and ruinous contest be commenced, we have still left constitutional means of complaint. No confidence in ministry, no treasury favours, no political connections, no indiscreet pledges, no external regards, ought to suppress our patriotism, or to supersede that superior and paramount duty, of attempting to bring to a speedy conclusion, by every lawful means, the miseries of an absurd, destructive, and abominable war.’

The Authentic State Papers which passed between M. Chauvelin, Minister Plenipotentiary from France, and the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, from 12th May 1792, to 24th of January 1793, and presented to the House of Commons, Jan. 28th, 1793. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1793.

The title of this pamphlet sufficiently describes its contents, on which it is unnecessary for us to make any comment.

A Discourse on National Fasts. By W. Fox. 8vo. 2d. Gurney. 1793.

Mr. Fox is determined that the authors of the present war shall find no rest for the soles of their feet, while he wields the formidable instrument of a severe and sarcastic pen. Though, however, we cannot subscribe implicitly to every sentiment which this pamphlet contains, yet it would be injustice to deny that it comprehends some strong and pointed truths, and contributes to place the present war in a still more striking point of view than his former publication on this subject.

‘ Of all the wonderful absurdities which the history of man presents to our view, perhaps, there is none so extraordinary as the associating of religious rites with those criminal purposes to which we should imagine the rudest and simplest ideas of religion must be inimical. Adam, when he first transgressed against his maker,

very naturally hid himself amongst the trees of the garden: but his more profligate posterity, hardened in guilt, when associated together to commit any crime of peculiar enormity, and extensive mischief, boldly rush into his presence, claim him as a partner in their guilt, and demand his assistance in perpetrating their crimes.

‘ One would naturally imagine that, when men were determined to give a loose to their criminal passions, they might be satisfied with immolating their fellow-creatures, by thousands, and by millions, at the shrine of their ambition, their cruelty, or their avarice. And we may surely ask why they should wantonly and unnecessarily insult their Maker? — but we will have the candour to suppose, that they do not believe there exists any Supreme Being, whom they can insult by thus profaning his name. We will admit that they consider religion as a mere political engine. Yet may we not ask, whether it be not degrading the state to dress it out in the tattered remnants of a religion which we despise? we may give to our crimes a factitious glare. Captain Macheath is not so despicable a character as Mother Cole. Let it then be considered whether it be not more becoming the character of men to give to our crimes the manly boldness of the former character, than, with the latter, to form an unnatural compound of vice and religion.’

In speaking of the nature of prayer, and of the impropriety of invoking the Divine vengeance upon the heads of those whom we are pleased to call our enemies, our author thus pointedly expresses himself.

‘ Numerous as are the passages, in the epistles of the apostles, where prayer is mentioned; they uniformly refer to spiritual blessings, or to those miraculous and peculiar circumstances appropriate to those times. Christians were commanded to pray for kings, and all in authority: but it was that they might live quiet and peaceable lives, in godliness and honesty. And if they asked for food, it was only as daily bread, which, by supporting that life which had been forfeited by their transgressions, was a continual manifestation of the divine long suffering towards them. And when Paul prayed night and day for the Thessalonians, it was that they might increase and abound in love, and might be unblameable in holiness before God. If then Christian prayer be thus limited, profane in the extreme must it be for us to apply to heaven that our favourite army may destroy the adverse one. It must, even supposing we were thoroughly acquainted with the merits of the dispute, and the purpose meant to be effected, and were satisfied that those disputes, and that purpose, was perfectly consonant to the commonly received law of nations, which certainly bears no great resemblance to the law of Christ. To return good for evil; forgive injuries; do good to all men, form no very prominent

minent feature in it. The New Testament is extremely defective in this respect, that it gives us no idea of a *just* war; it even speaks of all war, as arising from our lusts; yet the principal object of Grotius, is to shew from whence wars may lawfully originate. But it is remarkable, that in the present war we are perfect strangers to its purpose. In former wars, though the people were never in the secret of their real object, and consequently while they were telling God it was just and necessary for one purpose, which was avowed, government was prosecuting it for one totally different. Yet, this must be admitted, that a specific object was always held out. A nation was to be weakened, because it was strong; or it was to be destroyed, because it was weak. Another was to be divided, and another was to have a barrier. One to be attacked, because they had the assurance to say they had not injured us; and another, because we imagined they would resent the injuries we had done them. Some nations we attacked, because they made treaties we did not like; and others, because the treaties we made for them they did not choose to adopt. Sometimes we were informed, a country would be of use to us, and therefore we must seize it; and then we must seize another, because without it the first would be useless. Some wars were engaged in to protect our piracies, and our smugglers; one to aggrandise our colonies, and then another to weaken them. But in the present war, we are perfect strangers to the object it is to obtain. Mr. Burke says, we ought to be so. Admit it. Yet surely then we ought not to be called on to pray for success on his majesty's arms, without knowing how they are to be employed; and to assure God that their object is perfectly just and necessary, while we are ignorant of what that object is. All we can possibly know is, that two thousand men, from England, are to be joined to sixteen thousand more, which the king of England has hired of the elector of Hanover; and that these men are to be employed somewhere in killing their fellow-creatures. This is the sum total of our knowledge on this business. But this circumstance certainly possesses one advantage; for, as nobody knows how his majesty's arms are to be employed, every body may suppose they are to be employed to his own mind, and every body is left at liberty to assert, as it suits his purpose at the time to contend they ought to be employed. Hence, any man might have asserted, that they were only to have been employed in protecting Holland, and the Scheldt; and two months since he could not have been contradicted. Then, it might have been asserted, they were to secure Flanders, as a barrier for Holland. When that was effected, it might be pretended, we were only to deprive them of their other conquests, as Mr. Pitt had declared, that it was not intended to meddle with the internal affairs of France. But as she will probably have abandoned her remaining trifling acquisitions, before the fact shall have taken place, it will then evidently fol-

low that the success we pray for, and the object of that war which we shall then tell God, is both just and necessary; is, not that which Mr. Pitt declared to be the object, but that which he expressly disclaimed, an interference with the internal affairs of France. In such case, it must be inferred that Mr. Pitt is not in the secret of the present measures, and that he has not their conduct and controul; or, that he said the thing that was not. In the first moment in which the foreign armies enter the territories of France, it will be for him to come forward, and explain his tremendously ambiguous expression of "*pushing France at all points*:" but, alas! nothing will be explained but by the event. The authors of this tragedy know how to conduct the plot too well, to suffer the *denouement* to be discovered till towards the conclusion of the piece. Is France and Poland, and every country where principles of liberty may dawn, and which may endanger surrounding despotisms, to be dismembered? If so, England must be included: from her having emanated those principles; and never can the despotism of Europe be secure while there they are suffered to remain. It will not be sufficient even to restore the ancient despotism of France. Governments must be formed both there and here, in comparison of which the former despotism of France was liberty itself. For, let it be recollected, that from the art of printing, all the evils which are now deplored have resulted; and if that art be not totally annihilated, if it be suffered to exist even in that limited state which it did in France, all those consequences which have already resulted from it will again recur. But, if the continental princes should be able, with our assistance, effectually to subjugate France, the whole plan may be easily executed. Conceited indeed must be that Englishman, who imagines that this country would, in such case, be able to resist the confederacy.'

Proceedings of the French National Convention on the Trial of Louis XVI. late King of France and Navarre; to which are added, several interesting Occurrences and Particulars attending the Treatment, Sentence, and Execution of the ill-fated Monarch; the whole carefully collected from authentic Documents, and republished with Additions, from the Paper of the World. By Joseph Trapp, A. M. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1793.

Over the fate of the unfortunate and ill-treated Louis we have dropped many an unfeigned tear. The proceedings against him were evidently influenced by the mob of Paris, and demonstrate such an ignorance in the people of France, both of the principles and forms of justice, as we could scarcely have suspected. The publication before us is compiled from the newspapers, and contains nothing but what the public has seen over and over again through the ordinary channels.

The Trial at large of Louis XVI. late King of France. Containing a most complete and authentic Narrative of every interesting and important Circumstance attending the Accusation, Trial, Defence, Sentence, Execution, &c. of this unfortunate Monarch. Communicated in a Series of Letters, by a Member of the late National Assembly, to a Member of the British Parliament. To which is subjoined a Copy of his Majesty's Will. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Miller. 1793.

The character of the preceding article is exactly applicable to this. The compilers of neither have been very accurate in their attention to diction or grammar.

Falsehood, Paine, and Company, disarmed by Truth and Patriotism, and a Dressing to the Addressee of the 'Address to the Addressees on the late Proclamation.' Also, Friendly Caution to 'the Friends of the People.' Benevolent Retaliation, or Good for Evil; a Division of France into several Free States recommended. And a Prophetic Fragment. Respectfully dedicated to all true Britons. By Timothy Shaveclose. 8vo. 2s. Owen. 1793.

We suspect Mr. Shaveclose to be no counterfeit, but really and bona fide some talkative village barber, who has collected scraps of political criticism from his shop customers on a Saturday night, and patched them together with a few off-hand jokes, collected in a dispute between the squire and the parson. To use his own words—'It is impossible, that a well informed and sensible person can peruse *this man's TRASH* without feeling a mixture of indignation and disgust!'

The Village Association, or the Politics of Edley. Containing, the Soldier's Tale; the Headborough's Mistake; the Sailor's Tale; the Curate's Quotations; and Old Hubert's Advice. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

A detail of the proceedings of a small society of villagers who meet beneath the friendly canopy of an oak to discuss the subject of their political rights. Old Hubert, who acts the part of moderator, adopts the language of Sancho Pancho, and inculcates the love of rational liberty, and a veneration for the constitution of England, in a variety of apposite proverbs; which, however, we think, follow each other too closely, and in many instances are deficient in point of application. The truly valuable part of the work, indeed, consists of a series of striking and impressive quotations, from popular authorities on the subject of government.

Our author concludes,

'They must be rash, indeed, who would think of pulling down the building, without first trying what may be done by such judicious alterations as will restore it nearly to its original state. But they, on the other hand, are still more daring, who chuse to withhold

hold the necessary repairs, at the risk of having the house fall upon their heads.

'In plain terms, an abolition of abuses, and a steady adherence to those principles on which the constitution was established at the revolution, is absolutely necessary to prevent men from being urged, by despair, to make rash and dangerous experiments. Since, should the necessary reformation be withheld, there is every reason to fear that the people may, at some future period, be overwhelmed with the evils resulting from the mal-administration of ignorant or profligate governors; and that, galled by the recollection of former injuries, and smarting under immediate sufferings, they may be induced, not only to *abate the nuisance*, but to wreak their revenge on those whom they may esteem the last authors of their calamities.'

Upon the whole, though the composition before us is a little heterogeneous, it is evidently written with a good intention, and may prove amusing to that class of readers in whose estimation good sense does not always suffer by plain language.

Food for National Penitence; or, a Discourse intended for the approaching Fast Day. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1793.

From the occurrence of the general fast the author of this sensible pamphlet takes occasion to turn the attention of the public to our own national delinquencies; to the horrid abuse of impressing seamen; to the slave trade; to the sanguinary conduct of the British in India. As a specimen of the style we shall select our author's reflections on the immediate objects of the present war.

'We are a people *politically free*, and we justly boast of this freedom as our noblest distinction among the nations. We know our civil rights, and what it has cost to maintain them. Our ancestors, at a time when the genuine principles of liberty were yet new in the world, boldly asserted them against the arms of tyrants, and the arguments of bigots. Through scenes of contest and blood, through good report and ill report, they struggled to establish their birthrights against foreign and domestic foes, and they succeeded. What inconsistency, what degeneracy must it then be, to be induced by mean jealousy, partial prejudices, and petty interests, to aid in forging for others, fetters which ourselves have broken! Against attempts to disturb our own tranquillity, against usurpations on the properties of unoffending neighbours, we have a right to employ the power which God has given us; but never let us be led to join with unprincipled despots, in controuling the operations of a sovereign people, when employed in settling their internal affairs according to their own ideas. Should such an interference prove successful, ought we to complain if the same unjust policy were practised against ourselves, by those to whom freedom, in any shape, is a galling spectacle?'

An Account of Captain Gawler's Dismission from the Army, with Copies of the Letters which passed, on that Occasion, between that Gentleman and the Officers of the Second Regiment of Life Guards. 8vo. 3d. Ridgway. 1792.

Nearly the whole of this transaction has already been laid before the public through the medium of the daily papers. From the account now before us we see nothing which demanded from the officers of captain Gawler's corps a requisition to him to resign the Constitutional Society, and still less any thing which warranted his expulsion from the regiment, if his declaration is to be credited, that, 'so long as he remains in his majesty's service, he shall think himself bound by his duty to shed his last drop of blood in defence of his majesty's person and government.'

Remarks on the Hon. Thomas Erskine's Defence of Thomas Paine, and on his Assertion that the Monarchy of Great Britain is elective. 8vo. 6d. Bell. 1793.

Personal abuse should ever be discouraged by all who have a respect for virtue and the happiness of individuals; and it is particularly to be censured when it is directed against great and estimable characters; against such a man as Mr. Erskine, who is no less a prodigy in the present age for his independent spirit than for his incomparable eloquence and brilliant talents.

Rules for reducing a great Empire to a small One. By the late Benjamin Franklin, LL. D. F. R. S. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Alexander, Lord Loughborough. To which is subjoined, the Declaration of Independence by the Representatives of the United States of America in General Congress assembled. 8vo. 3d. Ridgway. 1793.

This work has been several times before the public; but particularly during the American war, to which it principally if not solely refers. In many points, however, it may be supposed to apply to the state of politics at this juncture; a circumstance which, no doubt, has occasioned its republication; but we cannot think the application very striking. The editor, not inaptly, dedicates it to the present lord chancellor, 'whose talents, he says, were so eminently useful in procuring the emancipation of our American brethren.'

Postscript to the real Grounds of the present War with France, suggested by recent Events. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

This pamphlet should have been termed 'John versus Bowles,' or 'a Recantation of the political Errors of John Bowles, esq.'—In his former pamphlet Mr. Bowles expresses himself in the following strong terms, relative to the interference of one nation in
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the internal government and domestic concerns of another, which he justly stigmatizes as an *intolerable* act of tyranny.

‘ It is essential, says Mr. Bowles, to a free and *independent* state to be subject to no *foreign controul* or *influence* whatever, in the regulation of its domestic affairs; and if by the introduction of a foreign force the government of a country were to be changed or modelled, by what means could the people free themselves from the dominion necessarily resulting from such interference? Would it be *prudent* to *rely* on the generosity and disinterestedness of the power at whose mercy they lay to abandon all views of ambition and avarice, and to relinquish the opportunity of aggrandizement which had been thus acquired? would the pretence of affording assistance in recovering their liberty, be a sufficient security that no advantage should be taken of the dependent situation to which they had been by that very assistance reduced? No, they would soon discover that their *generous friends*, who were ready enough to liberate them from their own government, would be as *ready* to *substitute* in its place, the *intolerable* dominion of a foreign yoke.’

This argument is placed in a much stronger light in another part of the pamphlet, in which it is asserted, that for any nation to attempt to legislate or establish a government for another, is an affront to every free state whatever.

‘ Nor can it be considered in any other light than as aggression against the tranquillity, the honour, the rights, and the independence, of every other state.’

These sentiments, however well they might be adapted to the former state of affairs, do not, it seems, suit the *present* views of Mr. Bowles’ employers. This pamphlet is, therefore, published to say—‘ That to *sheath* the *sword*, before the present power of France is *completely demolished*, before it is destroyed *root and branch*,’ would be baseness ‘ on the part of Great Britain,’ in ‘ withdrawing herself from the *confederacy* of which she *forms* a *part*, and of which she ought to be the *animating soul*.’ Even the monarchical constitution of 1791, and the plan of Dumourier, are entirely condemned by our author, and nothing less will do than ‘ the restoration of that *brilliant* and *vigorous* monarchy, so long the pride and adoration of the people.’—Alas! we remember the time, when to have spoken thus of the diabolical despotism of the old government of France, would have been deemed a *libel* in Britain!

Thoughts on the Causes of the present Failures. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1793.

This pamphlet before it reached us (notwithstanding the diligence of our collector in procuring these temporary publications) had already run through one edition, and if we are not utterly mistaken

mistaken in our conjectures, it will have a more extensive circulation than any publication of the kind within our memory. It is, indeed, highly valuable and interesting to every class of society.—It will amuse the politician, and instruct and inform the merchant and the tradesman. It possesses the profound information of Dean Tucker, with a better and more animated style.

To attempt any abstract of its contents would be no favour to our readers, as we should deform instead of elucidate—Let it suffice to say that the author with great sagacity inquires into the state of the nation previous to the present crisis, and into the foundations of that prosperity which the country then experienced. The nature of the paper credit is investigated with uncommon acuteness and judgment. The political state of Great Britain is examined with much candour from the conclusion of the American war; and the real causes of the increase of our manufactures pointed out. The causes of the increase of the African, American, and West India trades, are also laid open.

Our author appears, on the whole, a friend to paper credit, and certainly states many unquestionable advantages arising from it. The operation of war upon the paper credit of a nation, is illustrated by many new and curious observations. From this part we shall present our readers with a short extract, only premising that its full force can hardly be seen in a disjointed state, and severed from the chain of arguments with which it is connected.

Though purporting to be a mere personal security, a bill of exchange is universally received as a sign of property; and presupposes a degree of stability in the drawer of it, adequate to the amount.—Whatever therefore tends to diminish the value of property in general, tends to diminish the credit of bills of exchange: for although the persons liable may have been competent to the performance of their engagements under the existing circumstances at the time they entered into them, it is evident they may be rendered unable to fulfil them by the depreciation of their property in consequence of subsequent events.—Hence, in all cases of public commotion, a general impression is made unfavourable to paper circulation; and this is again increased beyond measure by observing the actual effects produced by a war, not only on every particular branch of commerce, but upon almost every different species of property. For instance, the bills drawn in the West Indian islands derive their principal credit from the idea that the persons who issued them are possessed of considerable estates there; so that in case it should be necessary to call upon them, they will be able to discharge the amount. But one of the probable consequences of a war is, that these islands may be captured by the enemy. The actual value of these estates is, therefore, considerably diminished; and the credit of the owner, and consequently
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that of his circulating bills, sinks in proportion. The situation of the manufacturer is yet more critical; the enormous expence of his buildings and machinery, the astonishing number of workmen employed by him, amounting in some instances to several thousands, the constant payment of duties, and the purchase of raw materials, pour out his property daily, with the rapidity of an immense torrent, which can only be supplied by a perpetual and adequate influx. Of this he is deprived by the war, which closes the market for his commodities, or positively prohibits his sale. From that moment, the very property which he lately considered as his capital and his riches, producing to him a princely revenue, becomes not only unproductive, but an expence and an incumbrance upon his hands.—Even those persons who may be supposed to be the most effectually sheltered from the effects of the calamity, often feelingly partake in its consequences. Estimating his property at the value it bore a few months since, a stockholder may have entered into positive engagements, which at that time he conceived himself able to make good; but when he is called upon to fulfil them, he finds that by the fall of the funds he is unexpectedly deprived of perhaps a fourth part of his capital; and that at a season when no possible help is to be obtained from any other quarter. The value of every different species of property being thus inevitably reduced, the sign of that property also sinks in the same proportion. But the least diminution of full and perfect confidence, is the total destruction of paper credit—unlike a piece of substantial coin, a bill of exchange is of no value, unless it be negotiable for its full amount, nor is there any medium between the receiving it for the value it purports to bear, and its absolute and final rejection.

Perhaps at no period was the commerce of these kingdoms so critically circumstanced, as at the commencement of the present war. The disturbances on the continent had afforded an opportunity of aggrandizement, which had been improved by the merchants and manufacturers of this country with equal skill and avidity. The popular idea that the purposes which the minister had in view were incompatible with a war, and the apparent uniformity of his determination to avoid all interference with continental dissentials, gave rise to a degree of confidence, which had extended the trade of Great Britain far beyond what it had been at any former period. That confidence had even afforded an opportunity for enterprize and adventure, in which mercantile men are perhaps of all others the most apt to indulge—Hence undertakings were begun without substantial capitals, and being once engaged in, were obliged to be supported by a circulation of paper, which exceeded what was requisite for the legitimate purposes of commerce, and rendered any interruption still more dangerous. In this situation an alarm at length took place. Its symptoms were
apparent.

apparent. At the first suggestions of war, a thousand apprehensions arose in the mind of the trader. The disappointment of his due returns; the danger of the failure of foreign houses; the safety of our West Indian possessions; the fear of internal commotion—all conspired to destroy the general confidence in that mode of intercourse on which the commerce of the country so intimately depended. The faith in negotiable paper instantly diminished; specie again rose to its full standard; and the discount of bills at any remote date, was effected with difficulty. These were sufficient indications of the consequences that would ensue from an open declaration of hostilities. War was, however, determined upon, and the scene of commercial havoc immediately begun. Suspicion took the place of confidence, and occasioned the very evils which it dreaded. Houses of high mercantile character, but of widely extended connexions, were obliged to stop payment. With the supporting trunk fell the dependent branches; and the failures of the capital were necessarily accompanied by many others throughout every trading town in the kingdom. The insolvency of the merchant led on the ruin of the manufacturer, and by his misfortunes a large portion of the labouring class of the community are now deprived of the only employment, which by education and habit, they are capable of exercising.

After pursuing the investigation with equal ability, he adds:

‘There are some, perhaps, that may attempt to account for the present calamities, by attributing them entirely to the wild speculations of industry, and the improper extension of paper negotiation. But solitary instances of misconduct will not account for national disasters. Uninfluenced by the causes before stated, the unsuccessful enterprizes of a few daring adventurers, would on this as on former occasions, have been confined in their operation to the ruin of themselves, and those with whom they were immediately connected: but where is the rank of society that does not feel the effects of the present shock? Had the returns in bills and produce, received from abroad, been convertible into specie as heretofore, there is every reason to believe, that many persons who are now obliged to solicit indulgence from their creditors, or to resign the management of their concerns into other hands, would have been enabled to make good their engagements. To stop the circulation of the blood, is as fatal as to exhaust the veins. Situated as we were with respect to continental politics, the trader had perhaps a right to presume that the commerce of this country would remain uninterrupted; and this idea was strengthened from time to time by the national sentiment, and by declarations from the minister to the same effect. Who was to foresee from these grounds that the commerce of Great Britain was shortly to be sacrificed to the shutting up of the Scheldt?’

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The conduct of the bank is next animadverted on with some severity; and the author adds, 'what are we to expect from the claims of friendship, while the minister holds out an inducement of upwards of 10 per. cent. by a new loan?'

He next inquires into the means of putting a stop to the progress of these calamities, viz. by temporary expedients, and mercantile associations—Many judicious hints are suggested in this part of the pamphlet. The author then takes a broader field, and inquires into the state of the national credit during the late war; but still persists in his idea, that considering the circumstances of the nation, previous to the commencement of the present hostilities, the *paper credit of the nation was not unduly extended*.

'Without the assistance of paper credit, can it be pretended that the manufactures of Great Britain could have been circulated in foreign parts, or the produce of foreign parts been imported into Great Britain, even to one fifth of the extent that has actually taken place? or would the minister have been enabled to exult monthly, and weekly, over the amount of his revenue? Either this felicity was ideal and visionary, or being real and substantial, has been incautiously undermined and overthrown. Whatever may be thought of our days of exultation, certain it is, there is nothing imaginary in our present calamities. They try the bone, and search to the marrow. Numbers, who but a few weeks since might reasonably have expected to have been able to console themselves, under every possible change of public affairs, with the certainty of a sufficiency to procure the conveniencies, and perhaps the elegancies of life, sink at once under the pressure of unforeseen misfortunes—or, if they yet look forward, it is only with dreadful apprehensions of being dragged to perish in the cold precincts of a prison, to gratify the caprice of a resentful creditor. Still more distressing, these misfortunes are often participated by a numerous family, educated to enjoy that competence which they long have been entitled to expect. As the calamity descends through subordinate classes, its victims, though less distinguished, are more numerous; and the poor disbanded mechanic sits amidst his weeping family, and curses his useless hands that are no longer able to procure them food.'

The author further complains that *the real object of the war is hid in mystery and uncertainty, and that its consequences it is impossible to foresee*, and hints at the probability of certain *rivals in trade starting up and depriving us of our exclusive advantages*.

On the whole, we cannot too earnestly recommend this pamphlet to the attentive perusal of the trading and manufacturing part of the nation, whose cause the author so warmly and energetically pleads.

Mr.

Mr. King's Third Letter to Thomas Paine, Author of the Rights of Man. 8vo. 6d. Riley. 1793.

Mr. King is a writer of spirit, and shows independency of principle. This Third Letter is at least not inferior, in point of composition, to the two former.

P O E T I C A L.

An Elegy, supposed to be written in the Place de la Revolution, after the Murder of Louis XVI. By J. Clay. 4to. 1s. Deighton. 1793.

This is the most miserable madrigal that the subject has yet produced; witness the following lines—

‘ Mysterious heav’n suffer’d men
To seal his mortal doom;
But who dare say he was not snatcht
To ’scape the wrath to come.
Adieu! dear lord, whilst I have life
And pow’r, thy fate I’ll mourn,
’Tis all, alas! this feeble arm
Is able to return.
For boundless favours, by thy grace,
Conferr’d upon thy foes,
Ungratefully they paid your love,
For which my sorrow flows.’

Gower's Patriotic Songster; or Loyalist's Vocal Companion: being a Selection of the most approved constitutional and loyal Songs, that have appeared from the various Associations in this Kingdom, for preserving Liberty and Property against Republicans and Levellers. Together with suitable Toasts and Sentiments. To which is added, two Soliloquies of the unfortunate French Monarch Louis XVI. and other poetic Pieces, on his Imprisonment and Execution. 12mo. 6d. Downes. 1793.

This tuneful compilation professes to supply the honest associators against republicans and levellers, with materials for the exercise of their loyal voices. We accordingly recommend it as a suitable vade mecum for all tavern-goers, dinner-hunters, and church and king clubs, who happen to be gifted with stentorian lungs, and feel themselves capable of doing the poetry and the subject proper justice. The toasts are of a piece with the songs, and the concluding soliloquies below criticism.

Verses occasioned by the Death of the late unfortunate Louis the Sixteenth. By John Macaulay, Esq. M. R. I. A. 4to. 6d. Harlow. 1793.

The Royal Irish Academy, of which we suppose Mr. Macaulay to be a member, will derive no honour from the publication of C. R. N. AR. (VIII.) May, 1793. I these

these verses, whose merits, to speak the most favourably of them, are of the negative kind. The author, like many others, has been betrayed by his feelings into the imprudent measure of writing poetry, but we can by no means congratulate him on his success in the present attempt.

L A W.

Mr. Justice Ashburn's Charge to the Grand Jury for the County of Middlesex. Folio. 1d. Stockdale. 1792.

We feel no disposition to dissent from the general principles contained in this Charge, which are no other in fact than the trite and well known theoretical maxims respecting the excellence of the British constitution; but we cannot approve any address from a judge which has the smallest tendency to inflame or influence the minds of a jury. However criminal the culprit may be, still justice can hardly be said to be impartially administered when this is the case.

Justice to a Judge. An Answer to the Judges' Appeal to Justice, in Proof of the Blessings enjoyed by British Subjects. A Letter to Sir W. H. Ashburn, Knight; in Reply to his Charge to the Grand Jury of Middlesex, in the Court of King's Bench, Nov. 19, 1792. 8vo. 3d. Ridgway. 1793.

This is a shrewd and sarcastic attack upon the learned author of the preceding Charge, and exposes some of the proceedings in our law courts with considerable acuteness, as will appear from the following extracts.

‘ Again, by the authority of Dr. Law, which is adopted by lord Lyttleton, in his Persian Letters—“ It is certain that the whole power of the king of England cannot force an acre of land from the weakest of his subjects; but a knavish attorney will take away his whole estate by those very laws, which were designed for his security. The judges are uncorrupt, appeals are free; and notwithstanding all these advantages, it is usually *better* for a man to *lose his right* than to *sue for it*.” I present, sir, the sentiments of authors of reputation rather than argument, because I have ever observed men of your profession to be extremely partial to *authorities*. In this paragraph you are pleased to add, that “ the power of the crown on the one hand, and the liberty of the subject on the other, are both effectually secured, and at the same time kept within their proper limits.” The *power* of the crown is indeed strongly *secured*: — that its limits are defined, appears to be denied by the late far-famed vote of the house of commons—“ the power of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished.”—Whether the liberty of the subject be limited, we need not inquire; every man, especially in those times, feels the forceful truth of the position; whether it be secured, let

us ask the sufferers under *press-warrants*, general warrants, the powers of an attorney-general, &c.’

‘ Next, with respect to crimes—“ crimes,” (you say), “ must not go unpunished.” But in no country do so many go unpunished, as in our own ; for instance, Barrington, sixteen-string Jack, &c. &c. “ We may venture to boast, that in the administration of the criminal law, no nation has ever been so *careful of the lives* and liberty of the subject.” This is not a technical, but indeed a real truth ; and a truth of sorrow to the just and the discerning. The public papers stated the following cases—April 17th, 1790. At the Old Bailey before lord Kenyon, a woman was indicted for stealing a *lawn* cap ; the evidence of theft was clear, and the poor creature trembled for her fate : when lo ! the cap turned out to be *muslin*—verdict *not guilty*. September, 1789 : Maria Morris was indicted at the Old Bailey for robbing her ready furnished *lodgings* ; the robbery was proved, the goods were found at a pawn-broker’s, pledged by her ; the defence was, that she rented the *whole house* for a year certain : *ergo*, Maria could not possibly be guilty of robbing *lodgings* ; she only robbed the *whole house* : Maria was legally acquitted.

‘ I will state one other instance—December 8, 1764. Balf and M’Quirk, leaders of a hired mob at Brentford election, were convicted of aiding in the murder of Mr. Clarke ; after the trial, the prisoners’ counsel moved that there was a *flaw* in the indictment, and this was debated on the Monday following : when Mr. justice Aston quoted the following reprimand from that great lawyer Hale:—“ The picking out of flaws in indictments, whereby justice is evaded, is a scandal to law, a degradation to justice, and a dishonour to God ;” and yet these cut-throats were again turned loose upon the public.’

A Charge to the grand Jury of the Court Leet for the Manor of Manchester. Containing an Account of the internal Government of that Town ; and of the Nature, Jurisdiction, and Duties of Court-Leets in general. Delivered at the Michaelmas Court, on the 15th of October, 1788. By W. Roberts, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Whieldon and Butterworth. 1793.

This able Charge contains a very accurate account of the institution of the court leet, its connection with the sheriff’s torn as well as with the sessions, its objects, utility, and advantages. The great defect of it is, the want of power to enforce its decrees ; for its original authority was, we apprehend, derived from personal influence.

R E L I G I O U S, &c.

A Sermon preached in the Chapel of the Asylum for Female Orphans, before the President and Guardians of that Charity, on Friday, April 19, 1793; being the Day appointed for a General Fast and Humiliation, on Account of the present War. By the Rev. Septimus Hodson, M. B. 8vo. 1s. Cadell. 1793.

We recollect, some years ago, a very singular charge of plagiarism was brought against our author, and as singularly defended: for, instead of publishing the Sermon which was challenged as the pirated discourse, he published *another*, and laid the blame on his memory for having somehow unaccountably introduced a long and remarkable passage from Dr. Ogden into the sermon that was said to be stolen.

On the present occasion we must do our author the justice to say, that we believe any such charge would be unfounded or unfair; for when men do steal or purchase, it is generally matter much superior to what appears in this production. In the commencement our author seems exceedingly embarrassed, and uncertain whether he shall preach or *prophecy*; but at length, discarding the office which at first, we imagined, he was about to undertake, of a commentator on the *prophecies*, he proceeds on the no less arduous enquiry, 'with what propriety we implore the blessing of God on a state of warfare;' and, after some egotism, introduces the following remarkable passage, which is certainly, to say the least, rather *mal apropos*, on the present occasion:

'Nevertheless, the history of every country, ancient and modern, is stained with the detail of blood shed upon pretences altogether different from those which I have now stated. The wit of man has been employed to invent plausible reasons to delude the multitude, whose treasure was to be exhausted, and whose lives were to be sacrificed; when, in fact, avarice, ambition, or private designs against public freedom, have been the only real causes of erecting the bloody banner. On these occasions too, in every country a parade has been instituted of religious solemnity; and impious invocations have been made to the Deity to sanctify hostilities waged against reason and nature. This unhappy state of warfare, which at no one time has been totally banished from civilised and Christian nations, forms one of the most melancholy proofs, that the spirit of our blessed religion has not yet produced its full effect upon the hearts of mankind.'

'Blessed be God, there has been found in all times a remnant of *individuals* who have glorified their Saviour, and illustrated the beauty of the evangelical dispensation! But I believe that this has been at no time a *national* character. The politics of every nation,

tion, whether the government has been free or absolute, have always been formed upon principles in no wise connected with religion, and in many cases directly opposed to it. *Interest* is the pervading principle of politics; and good faith is preserved or broken as this principle points.

The phrase, 'a remnant of individuals,' sounds a little singular in our ears.

After having got involved in this difficulty, our *sublime* preacher extricates himself, by 'thanking God, that we were forced into this conflict.'

He proceeds to describe the French as a most dreadful set of banditti, and plunderers, 'who have taken an *exception* (he means, we apprehend, a *liking* or *affection*) to all private property.'—He expresses dreadful apprehensions to the worthy inhabitants of the Borough and St. George's Fields, of these terrible marauders coming to *take their property*, though surely there can be little ground for these apprehensions, if what he asserts be true, that 'they (the French) have made the *possession* of it (property), a public crime worthy of death.' Mr. Hodson, however, we presume, is in possession of some collection of the *private* decrees of the national convention, as no such decree has ever come within the scope of our notice.

In the following sentence we appeal to our readers if there is either grammar or sense, and yet it stands entirely unconnected both with what precedes and follows:

'They have released us from the *pity* which a benevolent mind feels for the calamities even of an enemy, because they have thrown aside the very nature and attributes of men in a state of cultivated society.'

'In the following sentence we have another *private* decree, and also a new verb introduced into the language.—'They have also spared us the trouble of *conflicting* with fellow Christians, for that name they have rejected, &c.' After all these crimes, however, our *profound* preacher finds out 'that they form no *justifiable* cause of war on our part,' and he declares himself under most tremendous fears, 'lest our own national *offences* should *intercept* the success which otherwise we may so reasonably expect.' The principal of these offences, on further examination, turns out to be that cursed democratic spirit which every now and then peeps out among us.

It would be an endless task, and greatly exceed our limits, to point out the innumerable blunders of this wretched farrago.—But we cannot conclude without noticing a *new mode of puffing*, which our author appears to have introduced. It is well known that most of the public charities in the metropolis are converted into public exhibitions, where the populace pay their money for

an oratorical display as much as at a theatre. On certain occasions, therefore, when the curiosity of the public becomes more languid than usual, the chaplain, and a few friends of *the charity*, meet together in a committee, and publish a vote of thanks, &c. in the newspapers.—What would the public think if the managers of Covent Garden, or Drury Lane, were to return public thanks to an author for the *most excellent farce*, which had lately been performed at their theatre?

The Death of his most Christian Majesty Louis XVI. considered. A Sermon preached in the City of New Sarum, on Sunday, February 10, 1793. By the Rev. John Adams. 8vo. 6d. Matthews. 1793.

Unassisted by the title-page, the reader would find a difficulty in supposing this to be a sermon. It breaks out thus—

‘Blood! blood! is a most tremendous sound!—O that our ears were stopped *from* hearing of blood!—but they are not, and I fear never will be.’

The reverend writer afterwards takes a text, very suitable for such a discourse as he has announced, from Genesis xlix, verses 6 and 7, but presently tells us he only means this as ‘a fit *motto* to the subject on which he proposes to treat.’ Then follows what might, if found in a newspaper, be considered a decent sort of political lucubration, in which the author insists, on what all the world allows, the unfitness, the cruelty, and the impolicy of the French king’s execution. The following extract will afford our readers a specimen of this curious kind of sermon-writing :

‘With regard to the late French monarch’s character, but little can be said with precision, at present; it appears, however, from the whole of his reign, which commenced May the 10th, 1774, that he was more humane than most of his predecessors. His disposition and temper was such as greatly favoured the revolution. He was not a profound politician, or a man of stern resolution; he evidently was alternately rash and timid, and therefore not capable of succeeding in his principal schemes. Ever since the commencement of the revolution it was conspicuous that he was not able to support himself with dignity in the convulsed state of his kingdom; and to all who were solicitous for his preservation, he gave repeated cause to fear that he was not capable of conducting himself in such a manner as to avoid an untimely death. His supposed prevarication and perjury are asserted at a time when passion and prejudice have so much influence in swaying men’s judgment, that it is absolutely improper to decide at present on that head; and indeed a full and correct character is not now to be obtained, and perhaps will not be for some years. The most glaring instance of impolicy in him, was his engaging against this country in the American

rican war, and which eventually has accomplished his ruin. Whilst the philosophers at home were teaching the people the theory of a revolution, his army in America were learning the art of putting it in practice.—If we consider him through his close imprisonment to the time of his death, he shewed resignation, humility, great filial affection, and regard for religion; in short, he behaved through the whole with great propriety, in his situation, and has hereby left an impression, much in his favour, on the minds of most people, if not all.'

A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of St. Laurence Jewry, before the Right Hon. the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Sheriffs, on Sunday the 6th of Jan. 1793, being the Day of sacramental Qualification for the chief Magistracy of the City of London. By the Rev. Tho. Rob. Wrench, M. A. Chaplain to his Lordship. 4to.

These sermons are generally published as a matter of course, and are scarcely a fair object of criticism. That before us has little in it either to commend or to disapprove. The matter is trite, and the language is remarkable neither for beauties nor defects. The text is from Deut. vi. 3. and the subject is the general utility of religion in the concerns of civil life.

A Sermon preached at Fitz-Roy Chapel, on Occasion of the general Fast, appointed to be held on Friday the 19th Day of April, 1793, for imploring the Divine Blessing on his Majesty's Arms by Sea and Land. By the Rev. R. A. Bromley, B. D. Minister of that Chapel. 4to. 1s. Dilly. 1793.

This is the first sermon we ever remember to have seen advertised under the express title of 'No Peace.' A certain person, whose example and precepts Mr. Bromley seems, upon this occasion at least, to have rather forgotten, exhorts us to *love our enemies, to do good to them that hate us, and to pray for (not against) those who despitefully use us and persecute us.*

From the happy specimens which we exhibited in our last Review of Mr. Bromley's oratorical powers, and particularly in that figure which is called the *unintelligible*, the majority of readers will conceive him to be no improper person to raise a *war-hoop*, and in this they will not be disappointed. Our author black-balls poor Jezebel and the French, in the same elegant language in which he panegyrised Mr. West.—'To *compact* for peace with queen Jezebel, would have been to exclude Samaria and all Israel from enjoying it.'—He finds out that 'the war into which we are now *thrown*,' is 'brought on' by principles perfectly similar to those of Jezebel (that is *idolatrous* principles), for 'they *presume* on the semblances of reason and philosophy.' He speaks of 'the usurpation of *wild* controul,' (a species of controul we profess perfectly new to us); of 'consequences undeniable in *their facts*;' of 'mi-

series

series authenticated to be undergone; of 'a moral creation.' He is for *nourishing* the country in which we live; and 'embracing' all 'the opportunities of speaking on public affairs which are *put in his way* by the command of the executive power,' &c. &c.

The matter of this sermon is quite on a par with the style. Mr. Bromley has a strong inclination to convert the late defeat of Dumourier into a miracle.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Minor Jockey Club, or, a Sketch of the Manners of the Greeks.
8vo. 2s. 6d. Farnham. 1793.

An avowed imitation of a late publication, containing much nonsense and ribaldry, and exhibiting characters which, if any other than the creatures of the author's brain, must be totally unknown to any of our respectable readers.

An Address to the Faculty, and the Public, on the Expediency of establishing a Fund, for the Benefit of the Widows and Orphans of Medical Men, in the Counties of Durham and Northumberland, and the Town of Newcastle upon Tyne. By F. Glenton, Surgeon.
8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1792.

We can only wish well to the design and the objects of this truly judicious and benevolent Address.

Louisa Matthews. By an Eminent Lady. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s.
Lackington. 1793.

The authoress of this production, if we regard the inaccuracies of it, is, we suspect, not much entitled to the appellation of eminent. Her novel, as usual, exhibits the most perfect virtue, and the most consummate vice; characters which, we apprehend, are little calculated for initiating her readers in a knowledge of real life. Dukes, marquisses, and noble ladies, are scattered with unbounded profusion through her work; while a damsel run away with, perfidious friends, and dying lovers, complete the group. The heroine, after being the object of universal admiration, encounters the most poignant distress; but is at length, in strict poetical justice, made completely happy.



